

*Figure 17. Organization of the Air Forces, 1996*

Two training centers of the Reserve and Cadre Training Command are located in the North Caucasus district. They base five training regiments equipped with 500 operational and training aircraft of various types. Two more fighter training regiments deploying a combination of ninety-four combat aircraft are stationed in the Volga Military District. The Moscow Military District is supported by an air army that consists of a bomber division of ninety Su-24 aircraft of the Long-Range Aviation Command, a fighter division of 145 Su-27 and MiG-29 aircraft, a ground-attack regiment of forty Su-25 fighters, and a reconnaissance regiment of fifty-five Su-24 and MiG-25 aircraft. The Moscow Military District also hosts two training regiments of the Reserve and Cadre Training Command.

The Northern Military District is supported by an air army consisting of a bomber division under the Long-Range Aviation Command and a fighter division and a reconnaissance regiment under the Frontal Aviation Command. The bomber division is equipped with eighty Su-24 bombers, the fighter division with ninety-five Su-27 and MiG-29 aircraft.

In addition to the allocations made by district, forty-six aircraft officially belong to the Long-Range Aviation Command but are under the control of Ukraine. Their operational readiness is suspect. A composite regiment of transport aircraft and

helicopters from the Military Transport Aviation Command is stationed at Kaliningrad.

The Military Transport Aviation Command is organized into three divisions, each comprising three regiments of thirty aircraft. In addition, there are a few independent aviation transport regiments, including one stationed in Kaliningrad. Overall, the independent training regiments deploy about 350 aircraft of the Il-76 Kandid, An-12, An-22, and An-124 types.

Strategic aviation is an intercontinental nuclear strike force that includes about 15,000 personnel. In concert with the strategic rocket forces, it provides the Russian Federation's strategic nuclear threat. Organizationally, strategic aviation falls under the Long-Range Aviation Command of the air forces, but it is under the operational control of the Ministry of Defense. Bases are located in the Far Eastern, Moscow, and Northern military districts. According to the reckoning of START I, strategic aviation aircraft can deliver a total of 1,506 nuclear warheads, including bombs, cruise missiles, and air-to-surface missiles. The Far Eastern force deploys 107 Tu-95 Bear bombers of the G and H models and twenty Tu-160 Blackjack bombers.

The Bear is a long-range subsonic turboprop bomber modeled after the United States B-29 of World War II vintage. Although still serviceable, it is an obsolete combat aircraft by modern military standards. Its operational range would carry it over the United States, however. The Blackjack is a modern, high-performance aircraft that has a shorter range than the Bear. The Blackjack can reach long-range targets in the United States with the aid of midair refueling. For this purpose, the strategic bomber force has forty tanker aircraft in its inventory.

The Northern and Moscow military districts each house a heavy bomber regiment of twenty modern Tu-22M high-performance jet bombers. The Tu-22M has less range than the older Tu-95 models, but it is better suited to modern air warfare. According to experts, the Bears are located in Asia because they match China's obsolete air defenses, and the more modern aircraft are in Europe to be matched against the more formidable West European defenses.

### **Air Defense Forces**

The air defense forces, charged with defense against enemy air attack, have a total of about 200,000 troops, of whom 60,000 are conscripts. The air defense forces include missile, air force,

and radio-technical units and an air defense army. There also are two independent air defense corps (see fig. 18). The missile forces are equipped with approximately 2,500 launchers deployed in about 250 different sites around the country. Air defense forces have particular responsibility for defending administrative and industrial centers; for instance, they surround Moscow with about 100 missile launchers. The air force troop contingent consists of about 850 combat aircraft, including 100 MiG-23, 425 MiG-31, and 325 Su-27 aircraft.

The air defense forces also operate twenty Il-76 aircraft configured for airborne early warning and command and control. The air force troops operate their own training program from one training center that includes four regiments equipped with more than 380 MiG-23 and L-39 aircraft.

The missile troops are equipped with about 150 SA-2 Guideline, 100 SA-3 Goa, 500 SA-5 Gammon, and 1,750 SA-10 Grumble missile launchers. A program to replace all of the older systems with the SA-10, well under way by 1996, has been considered by experts to be one of the most successful reequipment programs of the post-Soviet armed forces. Seven of the military districts have at least one aviation air defense regiment each; two districts, Moscow and the Far Eastern, have specially designated air defense districts.

The borders of the Moscow Air Defense District are the same as those of the Moscow Military District. The Far Eastern Air Defense District combines the territory of the Far Eastern Military District and the Transbaikal Military District. Presumably, the boundaries of the other military districts are the same for air defense as for other defense designations.

### **Strategic Rocket Forces**

In the Soviet era, the strategic rocket forces (SRF) were established as the elite service of the nation's military because they have the vital mission of operating long- and medium-range missiles with nuclear warheads. They remained so in the mid-1990s. In 1996 the SRF had about 100,000 troops, of which about half were conscripts; the SRF has the highest proportion of well-educated officers among the armed services. The SRF also is the only service with an active force modernization program.

Russia's report for the CFE Treaty indicated the existence of ten SRF missile bases within the European scope of the treaty, including sites at Plesetsk (north of Moscow), Kapustin Yar

(near Volgograd), Vladimir (east of Moscow), Vypolzovo (northwest of Moscow), Yoshkar Ola (in the Republic of Mari El), Kozel'sk (southwest of Moscow), Tatishchevo (north of Volgograd), Teykovo (northeast of Moscow), and Surovatikha (south of Nizhniy Novgorod). Indicating the priority given air defense of the European sector, Russia listed only four additional missile bases outside the CFE Treaty reporting area, at Nizhniy Tagil, Irkutsk, Novosibirsk, and Kansk. There is a training regiment at the missile test facility near Plesetsk and another at the Kapustin Yar test facility. Russia has continued the reduction in strategic missile inventory required under START I, although at a pace slower than the United States would like. By mid-1996 all nuclear warheads on former Soviet SRF missiles in Kazakstan and Ukraine had been returned to Russia or destroyed, and all missiles were scheduled to leave Belarus by the end of 1996 (see Nuclear Arms Issues, this ch.).

The Russian SRF missile inventory not only is shrinking in response to treaty requirements but also is changing in character. The new SS-25 Topol is the only system suited to Russian strategic requirements and acceptable under the requirements of START I, so rocket production efforts will concentrate on this model for the foreseeable future.

The Topol is fielded in SRF regiments comprising three battalions totaling nine launch vehicles. In 1996 forty such regiments were operational. Several older operational ICBM systems also remained in the field. These included an SS-17 regiment of ten silos, six SS-18 silo fields totaling 222 missiles with multiple warheads, four SS-19 silo fields totaling 250 missiles with multiple warheads, and ninety-two SS-24 missiles of which thirty-six are mounted on trains. All except the SS-24 were being phased out in favor of the SS-25 Topol. Two remaining SS-25 regiments without warheads were scheduled for redeployment from Belarus to the Perm' region in 1996.

### **Airborne Troops**

The airborne troops comprise five airborne divisions and eight air assault brigades. They were designated as a separate service in 1991, at which time the air assault brigades were reassigned from ground forces units and military districts to Airborne Troop Headquarters, with direct responsibility to the Ministry of Defense. The justification for this reorganization was that airborne troops could not respond as quickly to an emergency under ground forces command as they could as a

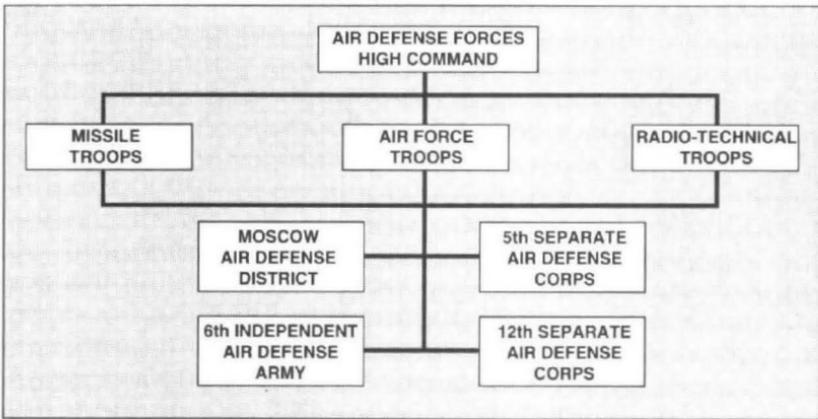


Figure 18. Organization of the Air Defense Forces, 1996

separate command. Experts believe that the decision to reorganize came mainly in response to internal politics rather than military necessity; at that time, the Russian national leadership did not want airborne troops under the control of the General Staff or the ground forces. In early 1996, four of the eight independent airborne brigades and two of the five airborne divisions were placed under the command of their respective district commanders, and the remaining three divisions became part of the strategic reserve. The command adjustments constituted a return to the pre-1991 arrangement.

The reason given for the transfer of authority was that the military districts already controlled the helicopter, fixed-wing, and other resources needed to support the air assault brigades, and that historically air assault brigades were created to operate in an operational-tactical role attached to a high-level headquarters. They were never intended to be a strategic asset. In the case of the Novorossiysk Division engaged in Chechnya, a chain of command running back to Moscow allegedly proved unworkable. However, the reassignment of the airborne units brought interservice charges that the move was an attempt to rein in a service branch perceived as having a dangerous combination of independence and mobility. The chief of the General Staff, General Mikhail Kolesnikov, characterized the decision as purely operational.

The mission of the airborne forces is to make possible a quick response to national emergencies. The airborne troops

are considered an elite force because they are individually selected from volunteers based on physical fitness, intelligence, and loyalty. By traditional military standards, the airborne troops are not a powerful force. Each division is assigned about 6,000 lightly armed troops with lightly armored vehicles. Their value is that they have special training and have operational and strategic mobility provided by long-range aircraft. Their parachute assault capability means that they can be deployed anywhere within airlift range in a matter of hours without the need for an air base in friendly hands. However, resupply and support by heavy ground troop formations are necessary in a matter of days because the airborne troops lack the self-sustaining combat and logistical power of regular ground forces.

All of the airborne divisions are based in European Russia. One division is based in the Northern Military District, two in the Moscow Military District, and one each in the Volga and North Caucasus districts. The division in the North Caucasus Military District has taken part in the Chechnya conflict.

The eight airborne assault brigades are smaller than divisions, and they lack the armor and artillery assets that give conventional divisions ground mobility and firepower. Once the airborne brigades are on the ground, they can move no faster than walking speed. Their role is primarily focused on helicopter operations, but they also are trained for parachute assault from fixed-wing aircraft.

## **Performance**

In the 1990s, the direction of change in the Russian armed forces is toward a smaller and more defense-oriented force almost entirely deployed within the borders of Russia. As of mid-1996, that change was occurring faster than military or civilian leaders could manage. The result was a large armed force with too many officers and not enough enlisted personnel, one unable to provide adequate training, and, according to Russian and Western experts, deficient in purpose and direction. The military leadership remained in the hands of holdovers from the Soviet regime who had failed to adjust to new political and military realities. The force's one strength lay in the sheer numbers of its personnel and the size of its equipment inventory.

The performance of Russia's armed forces in the Chechnya conflict provided a glimpse of the capabilities of Russian

ground and air forces. The image is not an impressive one, particularly if evidence on training and force morale is considered.

### **Troop Support Elements**

The social implications of Russia's troop support effort in the mid-1990s are staggering. In the United States, a lack of military housing means that military families have to find homes or apartments in the civilian community. Because that option does not exist in Russia, a military family without military housing is literally homeless. Families of field-grade officers subsist in tents or packing crates salvaged from troop redeployments from Central Europe. In other cases, homeless military families have been sheltered for years at a time in gymnasiums or warehouses set up like emergency shelters. At the end of 1994, an estimated 280,000 military personnel and family members were homeless. Many units live in permanent field conditions under canvas. In 1995 only 2,500 of 5,000 rated pilots in flight-status jobs had apartments. The elite strategic rocket forces (SRF) have not fared much better than the other branches of the armed forces. In 1995 the SRF commander in chief, General Igor' Sergeev, stated that only fourteen of forty-two apartment blocks needed in 1994 to house his troops and their families had been constructed, leaving 11,000 of his troops unhoused; one year later, 4,000 of his troops still were without housing. In 1996 the overall housing situation worsened.

The impact on military preparedness is immense. The daily lives of officers and enlisted personnel are consumed with providing the means of survival for themselves and their families. This marginal existence provides fertile ground for illegal activities such as trading military property for means of sustenance, or engaging in illicit acts to obtain money earned, but not received, in pay (see *Crime in the Military*, this ch.). There is little energy, time, funds, matériel, or even motivation to conduct individual or small-unit training.

Soldiers often wait two to four months to be paid, and often only partial pay is issued. According to a complex financial system, Russian commercial banks have responsibility for issuing funds from the Ministry of Defense's budget account to individuals, but the system has proved extremely cumbersome, and substantial amounts of money have simply disappeared or have been long delayed while being processed. The pay level also is unsatisfactory. In early 1996, a Russian pilot holding the rank



*MiG-29K Fulcrum naval variant armed with missiles, on display at  
1992 Moscow Air Show*

of major was paid approximately 1.5 million rubles per month, or about US\$300. By comparison, a NATO pilot of equivalent rank earned US\$6,000 per month.

Force readiness also depends on equipment maintenance and resupply. In 1995 aviation units received only 39 percent of the required fuel, reducing annual flight time by a factor of 3.5. In 1994 the Ministry of Defense purchased only thirty of the 300 aircraft listed as being required, and only one aircraft was purchased in 1995. General Petr Deynekin, air forces commander in chief, has estimated that, at that rate of acquisition and maintenance, the air forces would have no flyable aircraft by 2005.

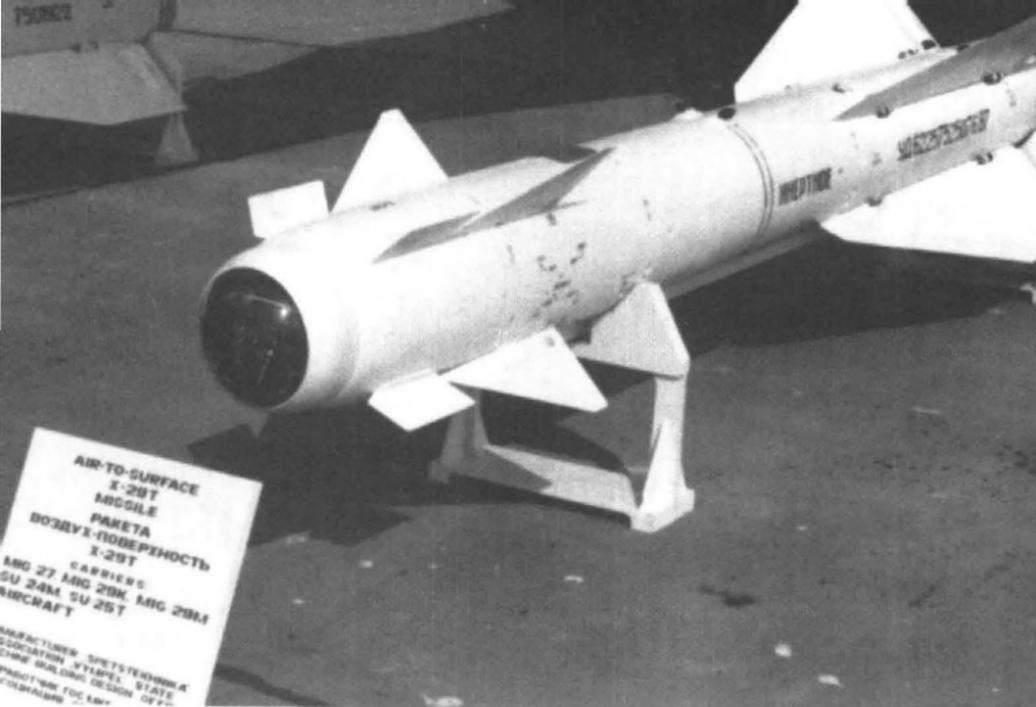
The naval forces are in approximately the same state of readiness as the air forces. Only one ship, the aircraft carrier *Admiral Kuznetsov*, had as much as five months of time at sea in

1994. Other naval sea time training was described as "infrequent." In 1995 nearly 95 percent of the ready naval vessels remained at dockside because of shortages of fuel, ammunition, and crews, and a backlog of repairs. Fuel shortages have caused the Pacific Fleet to cancel visits by single ships to Asian ports, and electricity was cut off to a nuclear submarine base in the Kola Peninsula, nearly causing a serious nuclear accident, because the base could not pay its bills. The Black Sea Fleet was embarrassed when a cruiser in the Mediterranean in 1996 ran out of water and had to request emergency resupply from the United States Navy. The once-proud aircraft carrier *Admiral Gorshkov*, the last of the Kiev class in service, was in drydock in 1996 for repair after a serious fire, and there were proposals to sell the ship for scrap or to the Indian navy.

Naval logistics had reached a crisis state by the mid-1990s. In 1996 fuel allocations were reduced by 65 percent from 1995, and rations were cut by 60 percent. Similar cuts were made in funds for maintenance, parts, tools, and batteries. The result was that fleet readiness was reduced by an estimated 30 percent for coastal forces and 50 percent for the blue-water navy.

Russia's four Kirov-class nuclear cruisers have fallen into disuse because they require large crews and are expensive to operate. Of the ships in that category, the *Ushakov* had been at dockside in its home port, Murmansk, for nearly five years in 1996 because of a lack of spare parts. The *Petr Velikiy* began sea trials in 1996 after a delay of three years. The *Lazarev* was scheduled to be refueled in 1996, but scrapping also was considered. Conventionally powered ships also have experienced maintenance difficulties. The Slava-class *Marshal Ustinov* was in drydock in St. Petersburg for two years for refurbishing, but it was expected to be scrapped for lack of parts and funds.

The air defense forces also have found it difficult to maintain readiness. In February 1996, the commander in chief, General Viktor Prudnikov, admitted that inadequate funding and poor matériel and technical support had lowered his branch's standard of combat readiness. Russia's missile forces receive no systematic daily training, and there is no firing-range practice. Air defense pilots get little flight time, and no funds are available for maintenance or aircraft parts. An estimated 50 percent of Russia's border is unprotected by radar because equipment of the radio-technical forces is inoperable. As of 1996, the air defense forces had not had funds for new



*AS-14 Kedge air-to-surface missile on display at 1992  
Moscow Air Show*

orders for two years, and no improvement was expected in the near future.

The readiness condition of the ground forces is comparable to that of the other branches. In 1994 General Vladimir Semenov, commander in chief of the ground forces, admitted that the ground forces lacked the capacity to perform their assigned tasks. The council reported that more than a third of the helicopters cannot fly and that even emergency supplies (war stocks) had been partially consumed. General Semenov has reported that ground forces units are drastically understaffed; motorized rifle regiments, the heart of ground combat power, are said to be understaffed by 60 percent. Semenov has concluded that Russian ground combat units lack adequate personnel to participate in military actions and that full staffing of units would take a prohibitively long time.

### **Crime in the Military**

By the mid-1990s, both organized and random crime had penetrated Russia's military, as they had penetrated many other parts of society. As the military reorganizes, personnel are faced with strong temptations to engage in criminal activity,

particularly when valuable state property is available for sale and when the professional prospects and social prestige of military service are sinking. Military and security personnel also offer criminal organizations a useful set of skills.

Petty criminal activity and systematic abuses by the officer corps have long been acknowledged aspects of the Soviet military system. As early as the late 1980s, authorities noticed escalating rates of weapons and munitions theft, narcotics trafficking, and diversion of various types of military resources. But the fragmentation of military authority and organization that began with the dissolution of the Soviet Union multiplied the opportunities for such activities. Drug use afflicted the military on a large scale during the nine-year occupation of Afghanistan, and the general increase in drug use in civilian society brought more users into the armed forces in the 1980s and 1990s. Episodes of random violence also increased. In 1989 fifty-nine officers were killed in attacks unrelated to military action. As morale dropped, cases of severe hazing of new recruits (*dedovshchina*—a tradition that began under Peter the Great) increased until, in 1994, an estimated 2,500 soldiers died and another 480 committed suicide as a direct result of hazing.

The illegal sale of weapons of all sizes became pervasive in the 1990s. Already in the late 1980s, Soviet troops in Europe were selling large numbers of individual weapons; as withdrawal from Europe progressed in the early 1990s, the sale of heavy equipment, including armored vehicles and jet fighters, also was reported. The largest force group in the region, the Western Group of Forces stationed in Germany, was the most active in this area, according to a series of investigations in the early and mid-1990s. Underground sales were reported inside Russia as well, with large numbers of weapons moving to civilian criminal organizations.

In late 1993, President Yeltsin formed the State Corporation for Export and Import of Armaments (Rosvooruzheniye) to consolidate and control arms sales under a single agency, but after that time the state still realized only a small part of the huge hard-currency profits from arms sales, while a number of top Rosvooruzheniye officials, with ties to a complex web of financial enterprises in Russia and abroad, flourished as sales continued to go undocumented. The agency acquired the nickname "Ros-vor," meaning "Russian thief," as the controversial activities of its officers were publicized and public confi-

dence dropped. Shortly after creating Rosvooruzheniye, the government approved direct arms sales activities by weapons manufacturers, further complicating the effort to monitor sales. Another state agency, the State Armament and Military Equipment Sales Company (Voyentekh), was established in 1992 to sell used equipment and arms overseas, with the proceeds to finance housing for troops. According to frequent allegations, that program also is riddled with corruption, most of its profits have not reached the housing fund, and much equipment has gone to the criminal world. Among the beneficiaries of such uncontrolled movement have been the Chechen guerrillas, who apparently were able to buy Russian arms even after the beginning of hostilities in late 1994.

## **Training**

According to Russian and Western reports, inadequate funding and bad organization have caused all of the armed forces to suffer from extremely poor training. Although numerous top military leaders criticized this situation, little progress has been made in the mid-1990s.

### ***Military Schools***

In 1996 the Ministry of Defense administered a multilevel system of military training institutions, none of which had full enrollment in the mid-1990s. The system included eight military academies and one military university, offering university-level training and education in military and related fields. There were specialized academies for artillery, chemical defense, air defense, air engineering, space engineering, and medicine. The Military University in Moscow specialized in jurisprudence and journalism. In addition, there were about seventy institutions of higher education (*vysshiye uchebnyye zavedeniya*—VUZy; sing., VUZ) for military studies, most of which fell under one of the main force groups and were further specialized according to subject (for example, the Kazan' Higher Artillery Command-Engineer School and the Ufa Higher Military Aviation School for Pilots).

### ***Field Training***

Nominally, the Russian armed forces operate on the same six-month training cycle that was observed by the Soviet armed forces. Each cycle begins with induction of draftees and basic individual training, proceeds to unit training at the levels of

squad through division, and terminates with an army-level exercise. In 1994 General Semenov reported that the ground forces had not conducted any divisional exercises for the previous two years. As early as 1989, a reduction in Russia's military training activity became obvious in CSCE reports of major training exercises. This means that by 1996 the armed forces had passed through more than ten cycles without conducting any serious training.

Considering the Russian military five-year personnel assignment cycle, the training hiatus means that there was one, and part of another, military generation in each rank with a serious training deficiency, or no training at all in their nominal assignments. There were platoon and company commanders with no field experience. Few battalion, regimental, and division commanders had practical experience in commanding troops in the field at their present or preceding level.

The air forces of the Russian Federation are the most technologically sensitive of the armed forces. Modern high-performance aircraft demand skilled crews to operate and maintain them. However, in 1995 General Deynekin reported receiving only 30 percent of required funding for fuel, equipment, and parts in 1995—a shortfall that cut pilot flight time in operational squadrons to thirty to forty hours per year, approximately three hours per month in the cockpit. By contrast, the United States standard for pilot proficiency is 180 to 260 hours per year.

## **Reform Plans**

In 1996 Aleksey Arbatov, deputy chairman of the State Duma Defense Committee, stated that the armed forces must be reduced by at least 500,000 personnel, a force reduction of one-third, with a simultaneous increase in the annual military budget of about US\$20 billion—more than twice its level at the time.

The official plan for armed forces reorganization was put forth in a presidential decree of August 1995. Reforms would occur in two stages, which were outlined only vaguely. The first stage, to last from 1996 to 2000, would include reorganization of the civilian economy to provide better overall budgetary support, stabilize the defense industry, and revamp the territorial divisions of the national defense system to match a new concept of strategic deployment. The second stage, 2001 to 2005,

would address the international role of the Russian armed forces, ending with the creation of the "army of the year 2005."

The first phase was defined by five goals. First, a "rational" level of strategic nuclear forces would remain in place on land, sea, and air to defend against a global nuclear or conventional war. The level of such forces would be influenced by whether other powers had developed ABM defenses. Second, further downsizing was possible, depending on the leadership's estimation of optimal size given world conditions. Third, organizational structure would be changed only after comprehensive research, with numerous ground forces units to be combined and maintained at cadre strength. Fourth, procurement would be centralized, spending priorities strictly observed, and expenditures carefully monitored. Fifth, the command and control system would be improved in all operational-strategic groupings, optimizing control to ensure maximum combat readiness. There would be a clear definition of the respective functions of the Ministry of Defense, the General Staff, and the main directorates. The newly created State Commission for Military Organization and Development and the General Staff were to direct the fifth phase.

After issuing the reform decree, President Yeltsin periodically criticized the military (most notably Minister of Defense Grachev) for what he described as a complete lack of progress toward the stated goals. According to Western experts, this was a justified criticism, given the disorder and internal friction that prevented the military establishment from reaching consensus on any policy.

Military service became particularly unpopular in Russia in the mid-1990s. Under conditions of intense political and social uncertainty, the traditional appeal to Russian patriotism no longer resonated among Russia's youth (see Social Stratification, ch. 5). The percentage of draft-age youth who entered the armed forces dropped from 32 percent in 1994 to 20 percent in 1995. The Law on Military Service stipulates twenty-one grounds for draft exemption, but in many cases eligible individuals simply refuse to report; in July 1996, a report in the daily *Pravda* referred to a "daily boycott of the draft." In the first half of 1995, about 3,000 conscripts deserted, and in all of 1995 between 50,000 and 70,000 inductees refused to report. According to a 1996 Russian report, such personnel deficiencies meant that only about ten of Russia's sixty-nine ground forces divisions were prepared for combat. The armed forces

responded to manpower shortages by extending the normal two-year period of active-duty service of those already in uniform; only about 19,000 of the approximately 230,000 troops scheduled for discharge in December 1994 were released on time.

The two most compelling reasons for the failure of conscription are the unfavorable living conditions and pay of soldiers (less than US\$1 per month at 1995 exchange rates) and the well-publicized and extremely unpopular Chechnya operation. The Russian tradition of hazing in the ranks, which became more violent and was much more widely reported in the 1990s, also has contributed to society's antipathy toward military service (see *Crime in the Military*, this ch.). By 1996 the approval rating of the military as a social institution had slipped to as little as 20 percent, far below the approval ratings achieved in the Soviet era.

Although by 1996 Russia's armed forces were less than one-third the size they reached at their Cold War peak in the mid-1980s, there still was a need for large numbers of personnel who were appropriately matched to their assigned duties and who could be motivated to serve conscientiously. The issue of gradually replacing Russia's ineffectual conscription system with a volunteer force has brought heated discussion in the defense establishment. The semiannual draft, which has set about 200,000 as its regular quota, has been an abysmal failure in the post-Soviet era because of evasion and desertion. During evaluation of an initial, experimental contract plan, in May 1996 Yeltsin unexpectedly proposed the filling of all personnel slots in the armed forces with contract personnel by 2000. In 1996 some units already were more than half staffed by contract personnel, and an estimated 300,000 individuals, about 20 percent of the total nominal active force, were serving under contract. At that time, more than half of new contractees were women.

But the main obstacle to achieving Yeltsin's goal is funding. To attract competent contract volunteers, pay and benefits must be higher than those offered to conscripts. Already in early 1996, a reported 50,000 contract personnel had broken their contracts because of low pay and poor housing, and many commanders expressed dissatisfaction with the work of those who remained. In mid-1996 a final decision on the use of volunteers awaited discussion in the State Duma and a possible challenge in the Constitutional Court.

## **Prospects for the Military**

In the mid-1990s, Russia's military establishment included a number of influential holdovers from the Soviet era, together with incomplete plans for reform. That inauspicious combination of elements was not reconciled because there was little agreement among military or civilian policy makers on the appropriate speed and direction of change, and because economic conditions offered no flexibility for experimentation.

To the extent that the Chechnya conflict of 1994–96 was a fair test of combat capability, Russia's armed forces were far from fighting form, even by their own evaluation. As they received pessimistic assessments of the current and future situation, Russian policy makers faced a complex of other adjustments. In 1996 the shapers of policy on international relations and national security could not agree on Russia's status in the post-Soviet world (see *Foreign Policy Prospects*, ch. 8). Utilization of the military's very limited financial resources would require a consensus on the areas of the world most vital to national security. For example, would a second Chechnya-type uprising within the Russian Federation merit the kind of effort expended on the first one? What sort of response should the seemingly inevitable expansion of NATO elicit? Should Russia seek a permanent military presence in other CIS nations, to bolster national security? In answering such questions, military policy makers confront a national psyche still damaged by the dissolution of the Warsaw Pact and the Soviet Union itself. They also are tempted to divert attention from fundamental problems by renewing campaigns against old enemies.

No redirection of national security priorities could have meaning without a strong commitment to reorganize the military establishment that was inherited from the Soviet era. Only a leaner force could recapture the Soviet-era reservoir of skill, pride, and dedication that was dissipated in the first half of the 1990s. Through 1996 the budgetary strategy was to finance selected high-technology R&D projects and MIC enterprises capable of satisfying foreign arms customers (together with internal security "armies" such as that of the Ministry of Internal Affairs), while literally starving conventional troops and neglecting maintenance budgets. With the formation of a new government in mid-1996, the voices of reform became louder, but consensus on the basic requirements had grown no closer.

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The *Russian CFE Data Exchange*, supplied in concurrence with the terms of the CFE Treaty, provides current and accurate information on the organization, deployment, equipment, and staffing of Russia's armed forces in the European sector covered by the treaty. Translations of Russian military periodicals and press releases in the military affairs section of the Foreign Broadcast Information Service's *Daily Report: Central Eurasia* are an invaluable primary source of current material. The best recent monograph on the Russian armed forces is Richard F. Staar's *The New Military in Russia*, which evaluates recent policy shifts and prospective changes of doctrine. *Jane's Defence Weekly* and *Jane's Intelligence Review* provide articles on specific issues of military policy. The annual *The Military Balance* contains detailed listings of force strength, weaponry, and deployment, and the annual *World Defence Almanac* addresses the same information with background on treaties such as START I and START II. The journals *Military Technology* and *Defense News* articles on the Russian defense industry and arms trade. A study by Graham H. Turbiville, Jr., "Mafia in Uniform: The Criminalization of the Russian Armed Forces," is a detailed report on post-Soviet criminal activity in the military. (For further information and complete citations, see Bibliography.)

## Chapter 10. Internal Security



*Sadko, a Russian folk hero, sings at the shore of Lake Il'men' near Novgorod  
(design from lacquer box made in village of Kholuy).*

**RUSSIA'S INTERNAL SECURITY APPARATUS** underwent fundamental changes beginning in 1992, after the Soviet Union dissolved and what had been the Russian Soviet Federated Socialist Republic (RSFSR) was reconstituted as the Russian Federation. These changes, initiated by the government of Russian Federation president Boris N. Yeltsin, were part of a more general transition experienced by Russia's political system. The state security apparatus was restructured in the period after 1991, when the functions of the Committee for State Security (Komitet gosudarstvennoy bezopasnosti—KGB) were distributed among several agencies. In that period, the interactions among those agencies and the future course of internal security policy became key issues for the Russian government. As the debate proceeded and the Yeltsin government's hold on power became weaker in the mid-1990s, some aspects of the Soviet-era internal security system remained in place, and some earlier reforms were reversed. Because Yeltsin was perceived to use the security system to bolster presidential power, serious questions arose about Russia's acceptance of the rule of law.

In the same period, Russia suffered an escalating crime wave that threatened an already insecure society with a variety of physical and economic dangers. In the massive economic transformation of the 1990s, organized-crime organizations pervaded Russia's economic system and fostered corruption among state officials. White-collar crime, already common in the Soviet period, continued to flourish. The incidence of random crimes of violence and theft also continued to increase in the mid-1990s. Meanwhile, Russia's police were handicapped in their efforts to slow the crime rate by a lack of expertise, funding, and support from the judicial system. In response to public outrage at this situation, the Yeltsin government increased the powers of internal security agencies, endangering the protections theoretically enjoyed by private citizens in post-Soviet Russia.

## **Internal Security Before 1991**

The KGB had been an integral feature of the Soviet state since it was established by Nikita S. Khrushchev (in office

1953–64) in 1954 to replace the People's Commissariat for Internal Affairs (*Narodnyy komissariat vnutrennikh del—NKVD*), which during its twenty-year existence had conducted the worst of the Stalinist purges. Between 1954 and 1991, the KGB acquired vast monetary and technical resources, a corps of active personnel numbering more than 500,000, and huge archival files containing political information of the highest sensitivity. The KGB often was characterized as a state within a state. The organization was a rigidly hierarchical structure whose chairman was appointed by the Politburo, the supreme executive body of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (CPSU—see Glossary). Key decisions were made by the KGB Collegium, a collective leadership including the agency's top leaders and selected republic and departmental chiefs. The various KGB directorates had responsibilities ranging from suppressing political dissent to guarding borders to conducting propaganda campaigns abroad. At the end of the Soviet period, the KGB had five chief directorates, three smaller directorates, and numerous administrative and technical support departments.

In contrast to the United States government, which assigns the functions of domestic counterintelligence and foreign intelligence to separate agencies, the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) and the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA), respectively, the Soviet system combined these functions in a single organization. This practice grew out of the ideology of Soviet governance, which made little distinction between external and domestic political threats, claiming that the latter were always foreign inspired. According to that rationale, the same investigative techniques were appropriate for both foreign espionage agents and Soviet citizens who came under official suspicion. For example, the KGB's Seventh Chief Directorate, whose task was to provide personnel and equipment for surveillance operations, was responsible for surveillance of both foreigners and Soviet citizens.

The KGB's branches in the fourteen non-Russian republics duplicated the structure and operations of the unionwide organization centered in Moscow; KGB offices existed in every subnational jurisdiction and city of the Soviet Union. The KGB's primary internal function was surveillance of the Soviet citizenry, using a vast intelligence apparatus to ensure loyalty to the regime and to suppress all expressions of political opposition. This apparatus served as the eyes and ears of the party



*Uniformed members of KGB at the Kremlin, Moscow, 1985  
Courtesy Charles Trew*

leadership, supplying information on all aspects of Soviet society to the Politburo.

The First Chief Directorate was responsible for KGB operations abroad. It was divided into three subdirectorates, responsible respectively for deep-cover espionage agents, collection of scientific and technological intelligence, and infiltration of foreign security operations and surveillance of Soviet citizens abroad. Segmented into eleven geographical regions, the First Chief Directorate placed intelligence-gathering officers in legal positions in embassies and elsewhere abroad. Such activities increased markedly after *détente* with the West in 1972 permitted many more Soviet officials to take positions in Western and Third World countries. In the 1970s and 1980s, as many as 50 percent of such officials were estimated to be conducting espionage.

The KGB Security Troops, which numbered about 40,000 in 1990, provided the KGB with coercive potential. Although Soviet sources did not specify the functions of these special troops, Western analysts believed that one of their main tasks was to guard the top leaders in the Kremlin, as well as key government and party buildings and officials at the major subna-

tional levels. Such troops presumably were commanded by the Ninth Directorate of the KGB.

The Security Troops also included several units of signal personnel, who reportedly were responsible for installation, maintenance, and operation of secret communications facilities for leading party and government bodies, including the Ministry of Defense. Other special KGB troops performed counterterrorist and counterintelligence operations. Such troops were employed, together with the Internal Troops of the Ministry of Internal Affairs (*Ministerstvo vnutrennikh del—MVD*), to suppress public protests and disperse demonstrations. Special KGB troops also were trained for sabotage and diversionary missions abroad.

The Internal Troops were a component of the armed forces but were subordinate to the MVD. Numbering about 260,000 in 1990, the Internal Troops were mostly conscripts with a two-year service obligation. Candidates were accepted from both the active military and civilian society. Four schools trained the Internal Troops' officer corps.

The Internal Troops supported MVD missions by aiding the regular police in crowd control in large cities and by guarding strategically significant sites such as large industrial enterprises, railroad stations, and large stockpiles of food and matériel. A critical mission was the prevention of internal disorder that might endanger a regime's political stability. Likely working in concert with KGB Security Troops, the Internal Troops played a direct role in suppressing anti-Soviet demonstrations in the non-Russian republics and strikes by Russian and other workers. Most units of the Internal Troops were composed solely of infantry with no heavy armaments; only one operational division was present in Moscow in 1990. In this configuration, the Internal Troops also might have been assigned rear-echelon security missions in case of war; they performed this duty in World War II.

Regular police forces, called the militia, which were the direct responsibility of the MVD, also played an important role in preserving internal order and fighting corruption; regional and local jurisdictions had no police powers. The Procuracy was the chief investigatory and prosecutorial agency for nonpolitical crimes, with a hierarchical organization that provided procurators (state prosecutors) at all levels of government. Although the new Russian government made several changes in the laws and organization of criminal justice after 1991, the

overall system of internal security retained many of the characteristics of its Soviet predecessor.

## **Successor Agencies to the KGB**

By early 1991, the powerful KGB organization was being dismantled. The development of the post-Soviet internal security apparatus took place in a highly volatile political environment, with President Yeltsin threatened by political opposition, economic crises, outbreaks of ethnic conflict, and sharply escalating crime. Under these circumstances, Yeltsin and his advisers had to rely on state security and internal police agencies for support in devising and implementing internal security strategies.

The KGB was dissolved officially in December 1991, a few weeks before the Soviet Union itself. Foreign observers saw the end of the KGB as a sign that democracy would prevail in the newly created Russian Federation. But President Yeltsin did not completely eliminate the security apparatus. Instead, he dispersed the functions of the former KGB among several different agencies, most of which performed tasks similar to those of the various KGB directorates.

In 1992 Yeltsin never made a clear statement of his plans for the security services, except for occasional claims that the new services would be very different from the KGB. Nevertheless, early in 1992 certain trends already could be discerned. Generally speaking, Yeltsin had three main aims for the internal security services. Above all, he wanted to use the services to support him in his battles with high-level political opponents. Second, he wanted the security apparatus to counter broader domestic threats—ethnic separatism, terrorism, labor unrest, drug trafficking, and organized crime. Third, he intended that the security apparatus carry out counterintelligence against foreign spies operating in Russia.

After the creation of fifteen new states from the republics of the former Soviet Union, the territorial branches of the former KGB were transferred to the control of the new governments of these states, each of which made reforms deemed appropriate to the political and national security needs of the regime in power. The Russian Federation, however, which as the RSFSR had housed KGB central operations in Moscow, inherited the bulk of the KGB's resources and personnel. As early as January 1992, five separate security agencies had emerged in Russia to take the place of the KGB. Four of them were concerned with

internal security; the fifth was the Foreign Intelligence Service, which replaced the KGB's First Chief Directorate.

### **Ministry of Security (MB)**

Within Russia the largest KGB successor agency was the Ministry of Security (Ministerstvo bezopasnosti—MB), which numbered some 137,000 employees and was designated a counterintelligence agency. The Ministry of Security inherited the tasks of several KGB directorates and chief directorates: the Second Chief Directorate (counterintelligence against foreigners), the Third Chief Directorate (military counterintelligence), the Fourth Directorate (transportation security), the Fifth Chief Directorate (domestic political security), the Sixth Directorate (activities against economic crime and official corruption), and the Seventh Directorate (surveillance activities).

In July 1992, Yeltsin signed—and Russia's Supreme Soviet (parliament) ratified—a law concerning the governance of the Ministry of Security. The law gave Yeltsin sweeping authority over security operations and aroused concern among Russian democrats. They worried because the new law so closely resembled the one on the KGB that had been enacted by the Soviet government just fourteen months earlier. The law conferred essentially the same mission and powers on the Ministry of Security that the earlier law had granted to the KGB, in some cases almost verbatim. The main difference was that in the past the KGB had been controlled by the leadership of the CPSU, whereas the 1992 law gave Yeltsin, as president, control of the Ministry of Security. The Russian parliament was granted some theoretical oversight functions, but they never were exercised in practice.

Yeltsin's first minister of security, former MVD chief Viktor Barannikov, left most of the organization's former KGB officials in place. In the spring of 1993, when an uneasy truce between Yeltsin and the Russian parliament was broken and the Supreme Soviet voted to deprive Yeltsin of his extraordinary presidential powers, Yeltsin called upon Barannikov and the Ministry of Security for support as the president declared the imposition of "special rule" giving him veto power over parliamentary legislation until new elections were held. However, Barannikov declined to involve his ministry in the political confrontation between the executive and legislative branches, urging that a compromise be found. When the Ministry of Defense



*Parade on last Soviet "May Day," on Dzerzhinskiy Square with KGB building in background, 1991  
Courtesy Michael E. Samo Jeden*

also failed to support his position, Yeltsin backed down from his confrontational stance.

The split between Yeltsin and Barannikov was exacerbated by Barannikov's response to the government corruption issue in 1992–93. Bribe taking and behind-the-scenes deals, which had been accepted practices for Soviet officials, were traditions that died hard, especially in the absence of laws and regulations prohibiting officials from abusing their positions. When privatization of state property began, the scale of corruption increased dramatically. The overlap between government-controlled economic enterprises and private entrepreneurial ventures created vast opportunities for illegal economic activity at the highest levels.

Beginning in 1992, the Ministry of Security became involved in the war against organized crime and official corruption. Before long, however, the campaign turned into an exchange of accusations of corruption among Russia's political leaders, with the Ministry of Security in the middle. Yeltsin wanted to use the corruption campaign as a political weapon in fighting his opponents, but his own entourage was soon hit with

charges of covering up crimes—a tactic of Yeltsin's enemies to which Barannikov lent at least passive support. Barannikov's failures to support Yeltsin led to the security minister's dismissal in mid-1993.

Barannikov's replacement, Nikolay Golushko, did not last long in his job. After Yeltsin's threat to dissolve the Russian parliament in September 1993, which ended in bloodshed on the streets of Moscow, the president realized that Golushko was also unwilling to use the forces of the Ministry of Security to back up the president. In this case, Yeltsin not only dismissed his minister of security but also disbanded the ministry and replaced it with a new agency, the Federal Counterintelligence Service (Federal'naya sluzhba kontrarazvedki—FSK).

### **Federal Counterintelligence Service (FSK)**

The law creating the FSK, signed in January 1994, gave the president sole control of the agency, eliminating the theoretical monitoring role granted to the parliament and the judiciary in the 1992 law on the Ministry of Security. The original outline of the FSK's powers eliminated the criminal investigative powers of the Ministry of Security, retaining only powers of inquiry. But the final statute was ambiguous on this issue, assigning to the FSK the task of "carrying out technical-operational measures, [and] criminological and other expert assessments and investigations." The statute also stipulated that the FSK was to "develop and implement measures to combat smuggling and corruption." Such language apparently assigned a key role to the successor of the Ministry of Security in the intensifying struggle against economic crime and official corruption.

According to its enabling statute, the FSK had eighteen directorates, or departments, plus a secretariat and a public relations center. Because some of the Ministry of Security's functions were dispersed to other security agencies, the initial FSK staff numbered about 75,000, a substantial reduction from the 135,000 people who had been working for the Ministry of Security in 1992. The reduction process began to reverse itself within a few months, however, as the FSK regained the criminal investigation functions of the Ministry of Security. By July 1994, the FSK reported a staff of 100,000.

Golushko's replacement as minister of security was his former first deputy, Sergey Stepashin, who had served as head of the Parliamentary Commission on Defense and Security dur-

ing 1992–93. Stepashin's arrival coincided with the establishment of a new economic counterintelligence directorate in the FSK and development of new laws to improve the FSK's ability to fight corruption. Stepashin announced measures against underground markets and "shadow capital," phenomena of the transition period that had been defended as stimuli for the national economy. He also defended the FSK against critics who accused the agency of persecuting private entrepreneurs.

In addition to fighting crime and corruption, the FSK played a prominent role in dealing with ethnic problems. One worry for the agency was the possibility of terrorist acts by dissident non-Russian nationalities within the Russian Federation. Approximately 20 percent of Russia's population is non-Russian, including more than 100 nationalities concentrated in Russia's thirty-two ethnically designated territorial units. Tension over unresolved ethnic and economic issues had been mounting steadily since 1990, as non-Russian minorities became increasingly belligerent in their demands for autonomy from Moscow (see *Ethnic Composition*, ch. 4). The FSK was responsible for cooperating with other agencies of the Yeltsin government in monitoring ethnic issues, suppressing separatist unrest, and preventing violent conflict or terrorism. In keeping with this mandate, FSK troops joined MVD forces in backing Russian regular armed forces in the occupation of Chechnya (see *Security Operations in Chechnya*, this ch.). Russian security elements also have been active in Georgia, where they have assisted regular forces in containing the independence drive of Abkhazian troops and policing a two-year ceasefire that showed no sign of evolving into a permanent settlement as of mid-1996.

### **Federal Security Service (FSB)**

The FSK was replaced by the Federal Security Service (*Federal'naya sluzhba bezopasnosti*—FSB) in April 1995. The new Law on Organs of the Federal Security Service outlined the FSB's mission in detail. The FSB regained a number of the functions that had been eliminated in earlier post-KGB reorganizations. Investigative authority was fully restored by the law, although the FSK had already been conducting criminal investigations on the basis of a presidential decree issued months before. Russia's fourteen investigative detention prisons and several special troop detachments also returned to the control of the security service.

The 1995 law authorizes security police to enter private residences if "there is sufficient reason to suppose that a crime is being or has been perpetrated there . . . or if pursuing persons suspected of committing a crime." In such cases, related laws require the officer in charge only to inform the procurator within twenty-four hours after entering a residence. Like the FSK statute, the new law gave the president direction of the activities of the security service, which has the status of a federal executive organ. Article 23 of the law stipulated that the president, the Federal Assembly (parliament), and the judicial organs monitor the security service. But the only right given deputies of the State Duma (the assembly's more powerful lower house) in this regard was a vague stipulation that deputies could obtain information regarding the activity of FSB organs in accordance with procedures laid down by legislation. The imprecision of actual oversight functions was compounded by the security law's provision that unpublished "normative acts" would govern much of the FSB's operations.

The law gave the FSB the right to conduct intelligence operations both within the country and abroad for the purpose of "enhancing the economic, scientific-technical and defense potential" of Russia. Although FSB intelligence operations abroad are to be carried out in collaboration with the Foreign Intelligence Service, the specifics of the collaboration were not spelled out. The liberal press reacted with great skepticism to the new law's potential for human rights violations and for reincarnation of the KGB.

Although the FSB is more powerful than its predecessor, FSB chief Stepashin operated under a political cloud because of his support for the botched Chechnya invasion. In July 1995, pressured by the State Duma and members of his administration, Yeltsin replaced Stepashin with the head of the Main Guard Directorate, General Mikhail Barsukov (see Main Guard Directorate (GUO), this ch.). Barsukov was closely linked to the director of Yeltsin's personal bodyguard organization (the Presidential Security Service), Aleksandr Korzhakov, who had acquired powerful political influence in the Kremlin.

### **Federal Agency for Government Communications and Information (FAPSI)**

The KGB's Eighth Chief Directorate, which oversaw government communications and cipher systems, and another technical directorate, the sixteenth, were combined as the Federal

Agency for Government Communications and Information (Federal'noye agentstvo pravitel'stvennykh svyazi i informatsii—FAPSI), of which the former head of the Eighth Chief Directorate, Aleksandr Starovoytov, was named director. FAPSI has unlimited technical capabilities for monitoring communications and gathering intelligence. When the Law on Federal Organs of Government Communications and Information was published in February 1993, Russia's liberal press protested loudly. The newspaper *Nezavisimaya gazeta* called it the "law of Big Brother," pointing out that it not only gives the executive organs of government a monopoly over government communications and information but permits unwarranted interference in the communications networks of private banks and firms.

The communications and information law authorized FAPSI to issue licenses for the export and import of information technology, as well as for the telecommunications of all private financial institutions. Equipped with a body of special communications troops (authorized by the 1996 budget to number 54,000), FAPSI was given the right to monitor encoded communications of both government agencies and nonstate enterprises. This means that the agency can penetrate all private information systems. The law stipulated little parliamentary supervision of FAPSI aside from a vague statement that agency officials were to give reports to the legislative branch. The president, by contrast, was given specific power to monitor the execution of basic tasks assigned to FAPSI and to "sanction their operations."

Some of the functions of FAPSI overlap those of the FSB. The FSB's enabling law mandated that it detect signals from radio-electronic transmitters, carry out cipher work within its own agency, and protect coded information in other state organizations and even private enterprises. No specific boundary between the ciphering and communications functions of the two agencies was delineated in their enabling legislation, and there was even speculation that FAPSI would be merged into the FSB. A presidential decree of April 1995 defined agency responsibilities in the area of telecommunications licensing.

A critical area of overlap—and competition—is protection of data of crucial economic and strategic significance. By mid-1995 FAPSI director Starovoytov was pushing for a larger role for FAPSI in this area. He began issuing warnings about the intensified threat to secret economic data (including that of the Russian Central Bank) from Western special services, which

he said required his agency to take more stringent security measures.

### **Main Guard Directorate (GUO)**

In mid-1992 the KGB's Ninth Directorate, charged with guarding government leaders and key buildings and installations, became the Main Guard Directorate (*Glavnoye upravleniye okhraneniya*—GUO), which until July 1995 was headed by Mikhail Barsukov. When Barsukov moved to the FSB, he was replaced as chief of the GUO by his deputy, General Yuriy Krapivin. Until mid-1996 the GUO included an autonomous subdivision, the Presidential Security Service, headed by Aleksandr Korzhakov. Beginning in 1991, both the GUO and Korzhakov's service grew steadily. By late 1994, the GUO staff reportedly had increased from 8,000 to more than 20,000 persons assigned to guard the offices, automobiles, apartments, and dachas of Russia's highest leaders, together with a variety of secret "objects of state importance."

The tasks and missions of the GUO are described in the Law on State Protection of Government Bodies and Their Officials, passed in April 1993. As of mid-1996, the agency had the same status as a state committee, but in fact the general statutes describing the government and the office of the presidency made no provision for such a structure (see *The Constitution and Government Structure*, ch. 7). The GUO's legal authorization to engage in investigative operations gives its officers the power to undertake invasive activities such as shadowing citizens and tapping telephones. The GUO was reported to have an unlimited budget, which it used to acquire sophisticated Western listening devices for use in Kremlin offices.

Shortly after the creation of the GUO, Yeltsin included in it the elite Alpha Group, a crack antiterrorist unit of 500 personnel (200 in Moscow, 300 elsewhere in Russia) that had been involved in operations in Afghanistan, Azerbaijan, and Lithuania. The Alpha Group had played a decisive role in the coup of August 1991 by refusing the coup leaders' orders to storm the parliament building, in spite of the group's subordination to the KGB, whose chief, Vladimir Kryuchkov, was a coup leader. In the following years, the Alpha Group gained a national reputation and became connected with figures in legitimate business, organized crime, and politics. In early 1996, Alpha Group veterans headed an estimated thirty-five commercial enterprises in Moscow.

In June 1995, the Alpha Group was sent to break the Budenovsk hostage crisis when Chechen rebels seized a hospital in southern Russia. Yeltsin disavowed responsibility for the attack's subsequent failure, and two months later he transferred the Alpha Group back to the jurisdiction of the FSB. In 1995, under the leadership of Sergey Goncharov, the Alpha veterans' association became politically active, strongly opposing Yeltsin loyalists in the December parliamentary elections (see *The Elections of 1995*, ch. 7). This antigovernment activity by former members of Yeltsin's security force raised questions about the loyalty of active security agencies. Following the 1995 elections, Goncharov's group continued to advocate restoration of Russia's military influence among the former Soviet republics that make up its "near abroad," as well as harsh measures against domestic organized crime.

By December 1993, Korzhakov's Presidential Security Service had become independent of the GUO, placing Korzhakov in a position subordinate only to Yeltsin. From the time of his appointment, Korzhakov was at Yeltsin's side constantly, becoming the most indispensable member of the presidential security force. Besides overseeing about 4,000 guards, Korzhakov came to supervise all the services in support of the president's operations. These included communications, presidential aircraft, and the secret bunker to be occupied in case war broke out. This prominent role led to speculation about Korzhakov's influence on policy matters outside the area of security, and his infrequent policy statements were closely analyzed by the news media. In June 1996, Yeltsin dismissed Korzhakov, together with FSB chief Barsukov and First Deputy Prime Minister Oleg Soskovets, eliminating some of the most influential government figures of the anti-Western political faction prior to the second round of the presidential election.

### **Federal Border Service and Border Security**

The fourth agency to emerge from the dismantled KGB was the national border troops command, which formerly had been administered as the KGB's Border Troops Directorate. By the mid-1990s, both the subordination and the size of this organization had undergone considerable change. For the Russian Federation, national border security issues have been much different from those of the Soviet Union; for this reason, and because of depleted resources to support security operations, border policy has become an especially important part of

Russia's overall relations with other members of the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS—see Glossary).

### ***Border Security Agencies***

In 1989 the Border Troops' personnel strength was estimated at 230,000. Although under the operational authority of the KGB, border troops were conscripted as part of the biannual callup of the Ministry of Defense, and troop induction and discharge were regulated by the 1967 Law on Universal Military Service applicable to all the armed forces of the Soviet Union.

In the 1980s, the duties of the Border Troops included repulsing armed incursions into Soviet territory; preventing illegal crossings of the border or the transport of subversive or dangerous materials; monitoring the observance of established procedures at border crossings and of navigation procedures in Soviet territorial waters; and assisting state agencies in the preservation of natural resources and in environmental protection. In carrying out these duties, border troops were authorized to examine documents and possessions of persons crossing the borders and to confiscate articles; to conduct inquiries in cases of violation of the state border; and to arrest, search, and interrogate individuals suspected of border violations.

In the Soviet system, the border soldier was expected to defend both the physical border and the state ideology. The second of those assignments involved detecting and confiscating subversive literature and preventing, by violent means if necessary, the escape of citizens across the border.

In 1992 the Committee for the Protection of State Borders, an agency subordinate to the Ministry of Security, succeeded the KGB's Border Troops Directorate in administering frontier control. Although the personnel level had been reduced to about 180,000, the basic structure of the agency and the border configuration remained substantially the same as they had been in the late Soviet period. Viktor Shlyakhtin, the first post-Soviet chief of the border troops, was dismissed in July 1993 after more than twenty Russian border guards were killed in an attack on their post along the Afghanistan-Tajikistan border. Yeltsin replaced Shlyakhtin with General Andrey Nikolayev, who had been first deputy chief of the General Staff of the armed forces. This appointment was a sharp departure from the usual practice of naming a career border troops officer to the top post.

In late 1993, Yeltsin established the Federal Border Service to administer frontier control and gave that agency the status of a federal ministry under direct presidential control. The FSK (and then its successor, the FSB) retained operational responsibility for counterintelligence along the borders, however. In 1995 Nikolayev announced an ambitious program for building up and improving the border service in the years 1996–2000. The 1996 federal budget authorized a total troop strength of 210,000, which would be a significant increase from the 135,000 troops on duty in 1994. In 1996 the Federal Border Service oversaw six border districts and three special groups of border troops in the Arctic, Kaliningrad, and Moscow, as well as an independent border control detachment operating at Russia's major airports.

Given the agency's ambitious personnel requirements, staffing and financing the new border posts became problematic in the mid-1990s. Although Nikolayev warned parliament that his resources were insufficient, the Federal Border Service's 1995 budget was only 70 percent of the amount requested. Equipment was hopelessly outdated and in need of repair. According to estimates, in 1995 some 40 percent of the signaling and communications systems along the border had surpassed their service lives.

### *Post-Soviet Border Policy*

In the 1990s, Russia lacked the secure buffer zone of Soviet republics and subservient East European countries that had provided border security in the Soviet era. The status of Russia's borders with neighbors Azerbaijan, Estonia, Georgia, Latvia, and Ukraine has required the presence of a substantial force of armed troops. In Azerbaijan, Georgia, and Tajikistan, ethnic conflict has caused chronic instability near Russia's borders in the first half-decade of independence. In early 1996, the FSB reported that 13,500 kilometers of the national borders were not defined by internationally recognized treaties. After negotiations with Estonia failed in 1996, Russia unilaterally defined its border with that state, requiring the presence of border forces until disputes can be resolved. The border between Latvia and Russia also remained in dispute as of mid-1996.

After the Soviet Union was dissolved, it soon became clear that Russia did not have the resources to establish a fully equipped border regime along its boundaries within the CIS.

In 1993 Russia stated openly that its top priority was to guard the outside borders of the CIS (hence most of what had been the international borders of the Soviet Union) rather than the borders that Russia now shared with CIS countries (see *The Near Abroad*, ch. 8). Such a policy reestablished the border republics as a buffer zone against potential invasion from China or the Islamic states of Central Asia. The other CIS states do not have the resources to secure their outer boundaries, a situation that led in the early and mid-1990s to the mutually acceptable deployment of Russian border forces in each of the five Central Asian republics. In Kyrgyzstan a few thousand troops were stationed along the Chinese border. Certain outer boundaries of the CIS, such as the Tajikistani border with Afghanistan, required extra troop strength because of constant armed conflict. In 1994 Russia doubled its Tajikistan border force to about 15,000 troops.

One goal of this policy was to preserve the capability for quick action in case of border conflict and to protect Russia's "internal" frontiers from the smuggling of people and contraband, including arms. The second goal, most visible in Georgia and Tajikistan, was "peacekeeping" in pursuit of Moscow's foreign policy priorities within the border country. In pursuit of the second goal, in the mid-1990s border forces increasingly were used as an extension of Russia's military power in the CIS.

The revised view of border security naturally brought with it an effort at reintegration of the former Soviet republics. Russia began to advocate "transparent borders" with the coterminous CIS states—Azerbaijan, Belarus, Georgia, Kazakstan, and Ukraine. This meant that borders would remain open for the unrestricted passage of people and goods. Strict border regimes would be established only in zones of acute conflict, such as the North Caucasus. The April 1993 Law on the State Border of the Russian Federation reflected this policy by abolishing the specially designated border districts of the Soviet system, leaving only border strips five kilometers wide. The law stipulated the goal of establishing a reduced and simplified border regime with all CIS states.

## **Security Operations in Chechnya**

The internal instability of the Soviet government during 1990–91 invited expressions of separatism in many of Russia's distinct ethnic enclaves, as well as in ethnically Russian districts in the Soviet Far East. The most volatile and troublesome area

within the new Russian Federation was the North Caucasus, where the predominantly Muslim former Chechen-Ingush Autonomous Republic is located. A crisis had been building there for some time (see *Movements Toward Sovereignty*, ch. 4). In October 1991, a Chechen nationalist movement headed by former Soviet air force general Dzhokar Dudayev overthrew the existing government and installed Dudayev as president. Shortly thereafter, the Chechen Supreme Soviet declared Chechnya a sovereign republic.

Yeltsin responded by deploying Ministry of Internal Affairs (MVD) troops in the region, but the Russian Supreme Soviet declared the action invalid and ordered him to settle the conflict peaceably. The perceived indecision by the Russian government encouraged Chechen nationalists to pursue complete political independence and Russian recognition of that status. The Yeltsin administration was equally adamant in its refusal to negotiate until Chechnya redesignated itself part of the Russian Federation. Violence erupted in Chechnya on numerous occasions during 1993–94, and Russian security forces became fully involved in the conflict. In July 1994, a group of hostages taken by Chechen guerrillas near Pyatigorsk in Russian territory perished during an unsuccessful rescue operation by the MVD. The FSK armed Chechen opposition forces, which launched several unsuccessful attacks against the Dudayev government in the fall of 1994. When Russian conventional forces finally invaded Chechnya in December, they received substantial support from troops of the FSK, its successor the FSB, and the MVD. The FSB and MVD remained part of an uneasy occupation force through mid-1996 (see *Chechnya*, ch. 9).

## **Crime**

The liberalizing changes of the post-Soviet era brought new types of crime, many of them associated with economic activities that had not existed until 1992. As the opportunities for legal commercial initiatives expanded rapidly, so did the opportunities to defraud Russian citizens inexperienced in economic matters and to take advantage of Russia's complete lack of laws covering many types of crime, including the organized extraction of protection money from economic enterprises.

### **Crime in the Soviet Era**

Because the Soviet Union did not publish comprehensive

crime statistics, comparison of its crime rates with those of other countries is difficult. According to Western experts, robberies, murders, and other violent crimes were much less prevalent than in the United States because of the Soviet Union's larger police presence, strict gun controls, and relatively low incidence of drug abuse. By contrast, white-collar economic crime permeated the Soviet system. Bribery and covert payments for goods and services were universal, mainly because of the paucity of goods and services on the open market. Theft of state property was practiced routinely by employees, as were various forms of petty theft. In the last years of the Soviet Union, the government of Mikhail S. Gorbachev (in office 1985–91) made a concerted effort to curtail such white-collar crime. Revelations of corruption scandals involving high-level party employees appeared regularly in the Soviet news media, and many arrests and prosecutions resulted from such discoveries.

### **The Crime Wave of the 1990s**

In the first half of the 1990s, crime statistics moved sharply and uniformly upward. From 1991 to 1992, the number of officially reported crimes and the overall crime rate each showed a 27 percent increase; the crime rate nearly doubled between 1985 and 1992. By the early 1990s, theft, burglary, and other acts against property accounted for about two-thirds of all crime in Russia. Of particular concern to citizens, however, was the rapid growth of violent crime, including gruesome homicides.

#### ***Crime Statistics***

Moscow's 1995 statistics included 93,560 crimes, of which 18,500 were white-collar crimes—an increase of 8.3 percent over 1994. Among white-collar crimes, swindling increased 67.2 percent, and extortion 37.5 percent, in 1995. Among the conventional crimes reported, murder and attempted murder increased 1.5 percent, rape 6.5 percent, burglaries 6.6 percent, burglaries accompanied by violence 20.8 percent, and serious crimes by teenagers 2.2 percent. The rate of crime-solving by the Moscow militia (police) rose in 1995 from 57.7 percent to 64.9 percent, but that statistic was bolstered substantially by success in solving minor crimes; the projected rate of solving burglaries was 18.8 percent, of murders 42.2 percent, and of crimes involving use of a firearm, 31.4 percent. Moscow and St.

Petersburg were the centers of automobile theft, which increased dramatically through the first half of the 1990s. In Moscow an estimated fifty cars were stolen per day, with the estimated yearly total for Russia between 100,000 and 150,000. In the first quarter of 1994, Russia averaged eighty-four murders a day. Many of those crimes were contract killings attributed to criminal organizations. In 1994 murder victims included three deputies of the State Duma, one journalist, a priest, the head of a union, several local officials, and more than thirty businesspeople and bankers. Most of those crimes went unsolved.

The 1995 national crime total exceeded 1.3 million, including 30,600 murders. Crime experts predicted that the murder total would reach 50,000 in 1996. In 1995 some 248 regular militia officers were killed in the line of duty.

Confiscation of firearms, possession of which has been identified as another grave social problem, increased substantially in 1995, according to the Moscow militia's Regional Organized Crime Directorate. About 3 million firearms were registered in 1995, but the number of unregistered guns was assumed to far exceed that figure. Military weapons are stolen frequently and sold to gangsters; in 1993 nearly 60,000 cases of such theft were reported, involving machine guns, hand grenades, and explosives, among other weapons (see *Crime in the Military*, ch. 9). The ready availability of firearms has made the work of the poorly armed militia more dangerous.

### *Organized Crime*

By early 1994, crime was second only to the national economy as a domestic issue in Russia. In January 1994, a report prepared for President Yeltsin by the Analytical Center for Social and Economic Policies was published in the national daily newspaper *Izvestiya*. According to the center, between 70 and 80 percent of private enterprises and commercial banks were forced to pay protection fees to criminal organizations, which in Russia received the generic label *mafya*. Unlike organized crime in other countries, which controls only such criminal activities as drug trafficking and gambling, and specific types of legitimate enterprise such as municipal trash collection, the Russian crime organizations have gained strong influence in a wide variety of economic activities. In addition, beginning with the collapse of the Soviet Union and the weakening of border controls, Russia has been drawn into the net-

work of international organized crime. In this way, Russia has become a major conduit for the movement of drugs, contraband, and laundered money between Europe and Asia. In 1995 an estimated 150 criminal organizations with transnational links were operating in Russia.

Among the main targets of organized crime are businesses and banks in Russia's newly privatized economy and foreigners—both individual and corporate—in possession of luxury goods or the hard currency (see Glossary) to purchase them. Many of Russia's *mafia* figures began their "careers" in the black market during the communist era. They are now able to operate overtly and are increasingly brazen. Many current and former government officials and businesspeople have been identified as belonging to the *mafia* network.

The 1994 report to the president described collusion between criminal gangs and local law enforcement officials, which made controlling crime especially difficult. The enforcement problem, which became acute in 1993, was exacerbated by overtaxation, confusing regulations, and the absence of an effective judicial system. By 1993 criminal groups had moved into commercial ventures, using racketeering, kidnapping, and murder to intimidate competition. In 1994 an MVD official estimated that there were 5,700 criminal gangs in Russia, with a membership of approximately 100,000.

In March 1995, Vladislav List'ev, a prominent television journalist, was assassinated. List'ev had been a supporter of efforts to stop corruption in state television, where large amounts of advertising revenues were being extorted by organized crime. A Russian news agency reported that, between 1992 and mid-1995, there had been eighty-three attempts—forty-six of which were successful—to kill bankers and businesspeople. In 1996 contract killings remained a regular occurrence, especially in Moscow.

### ***Nuclear Security***

Neither civilian nor military nuclear facilities have adequate security. Thefts of nuclear materials from Russia gained international attention in 1993 and 1994. In 1995 the FSB reported investigations of thirty such incidents. Such thefts assumedly were intended to supply smuggling operations into Iran and Germany, among other destinations. Although the Russian government took nominal steps to improve nuclear security early in 1995, the minister of internal affairs reported that 80 per-

cent of nuclear enterprises lacked checkpoints. Western experts pointed to the potential for organized criminals to obtain weapons-grade nuclear materials, and in 1996 new reports described lax security at nuclear installations.

### *Terrorism*

Security police reported that between 1991 and 1993 the incidence of terrorist bombings rose from fifty to 350. The methods used by organized criminals in Russia caused experts to include Russia as a likely location in their identification of a new wave of world terrorism in the 1990s. Besides organized crime, a second factor potentially contributing to terrorism is the extreme instability of economic and social conditions: high unemployment and job insecurity, friction among ethnic groups and between urban populations and job-seeking migrants into their cities, and a general decline in the standard of living. The vulnerability of Russia's isolated transport and pipeline systems and the proximity of hazardous-materials centers to cities further increase the prospect of terrorist activities. In 1995 terrorist acts and two major instances of hostage taking by Chechen separatists promoted fears that vulnerable citizens and locations in other parts of Russia might be targeted by separatist groups. In December 1995, an international conference on terrorism in Ottawa categorized the Budennovsk hostage incident of June 1995—in which Chechen guerrillas captured more than 1,000 hostages 120 kilometers inside Russian territory—with the Oklahoma City bombing and Middle Eastern terrorist acts as examples of flagrant international terrorism.

### *Narcotics*

In the mid-1990s, narcotics addiction and sales play a growing role in the disruption of Russian society. This trend has been promoted by an adverse economic situation, a general lack of high-level control over the use and movement of narcotic substances, and the continued laxity of border controls. Between 1993 and 1995, the annual amount of seized drugs increased from thirty-five to ninety tons; experts believe that Russia has the largest per capita drug market of all the former Soviet republics.

According to the Russian government's Center for the Study of Drug Addiction, in early 1996 at least 500,000 Russians were dependent on illegal drugs. With use increasing at an estimated rate of 50 percent per year, the total number of users

was estimated at 2 million in 1995. Drug traffickers, supplied mainly with opium from Central Asia and heroin from Iran, Pakistan, and Afghanistan, have targeted Russia as a market and as a conduit to Western markets. In the early 1990s, cocaine use appeared among affluent young Russians, and beginning in 1993 the interception of cocaine shipments in St. Petersburg indicated that South American producers had entered the Russian market. Criminal organizations are believed to control most trafficking and distribution in Russia. Some local Russian distributors are closely linked with criminal groups in Central Asia, the Caucasus, and Ukraine. Russian soldiers and officers in Afghanistan and later in Central Asia became active in smuggling the narcotics easily available in those countries into Russia. Reportedly, members of the Russian 201st Motorized Infantry Division, stationed in Tajikistan, have established a profitable enterprise that is tacitly accepted by Russian and Tajikistani authorities. The Moscow State Institute of International Relations has reported the existence of a regular smuggling route going from Tajikistan to Russia's Black Sea port of Rostov-na-Donu via Turkmenistan, and from there to Western Europe. One explanation of the Russian attack on Chechnya, published in the independent newspaper *Nezavisimaya gazeta*, was that it was a reprisal against Chechen president Dzhokar Dudayev for demanding more protection money for narcotics shipments through Chechnya to Rostov-na-Donu.

Narcotics production in Russia also is rising. In 1993 the government seized 215 laboratories, many of them small-scale amphetamine producers who used stolen government equipment. Newly privatized chemical laboratories are more difficult to monitor than were Soviet-era state facilities. Opium poppies and marijuana are grown in southern Russia, although cultivation is illegal. In 1995 an MVD official estimated that about 1 million hectares of wild cannabis was growing and easily available in Siberia; opium cultivation also is believed to be increasing.

The laundering of drug money is encouraged by Russia's lax monetary regulations and controls. Some local banks are controlled by criminal groups that use them to launder profits from illegal activities, including drug sales. According to one 1995 estimate, as many as 25 percent of Moscow's commercial banks are part of this operation. Legislation against money laundering was proposed but had not been passed as of mid-1996.

In 1994 the Yeltsin administration formed an interministerial counternarcotics committee, involving twenty-four agencies, to coordinate drug policy. In 1995 a three-year antidrug program was approved to support interdiction and drug treatment facilities. The program also was intended to criminalize drug use, extend sentences for drug trafficking, and establish a pharmaceuticals-monitoring process. In 1995 the full-time staff of the anti-drug-trafficking department of the MVD increased from about 3,500 to 4,000. The State Customs Committee increased its drug control staff by 350 and added fifty field offices, and the Federal Border Service created an antidrug force. The Moscow City Council instituted drug education programs in some city schools in 1993, and several private organizations have sponsored national programs to curb demand. The government has not aggressively addressed the rehabilitation of drug addicts or the reduction of demand, however; in 1995 an estimated 90 percent of Russia's drug addicts went untreated (see *Health Conditions*, ch. 5).

The Russian government has signed a number of international conventions on narcotics (responsibility for some of which it inherited from the Soviet Union), including the 1988 United Nations Convention on Narcotic Drugs. Russia will not be in full compliance with the convention, however, until it has stricter controls on production and distribution and tougher criminal penalties for possession of drugs. The United States government has offered Russia advice and training courses on various aspects of narcotics control. A mutual legal-assistance agreement with the United States went into effect in early 1996, and the Federal Border Service has memorandums of understanding on narcotics cooperation with the United States Coast Guard and with Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan.

## **The Criminal Justice System**

The Federal Security Service (FSB) has a staff of several thousand responsible for investigating crimes of national and international scope such as terrorism, smuggling, treason, violations of secrecy laws, and large-scale economic crime and corruption—an area of jurisdiction similar to that of the United States Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI). Several other state organizations also have designated criminal investigatory responsibilities.

## **Ministry of Internal Affairs (MVD)**

Unlike the successor agencies to the KGB, the Ministry of Internal Affairs (*Ministerstvo vnutrennikh del*—MVD) did not undergo extensive reorganization after 1991. The MVD carries out regular police functions, including maintenance of public order and criminal investigation. It also has responsibility for fire fighting and prevention, traffic control, automobile registration, transportation security, issuance of visas and passports, and administration of labor camps and most prisons.

In 1996 the MVD was estimated to have 540,000 personnel, including the regular militia (police force) and MVD special troops but not including the ministry's Internal Troops. The MVD operates at both the central and local levels. The central system is administered from the ministry office in Moscow. As of mid-1996, the minister of internal affairs was General Anatoliy Kulikov. He replaced Viktor Yerin, who was dismissed in response to State Duma demands after the MVD mishandled the 1995 Budennovsk hostage crisis.

MVD agencies exist at all levels from the national to the municipal. MVD agencies at lower operational levels conduct preliminary investigations of crimes. They also perform the ministry's policing, motor vehicle inspection, and fire and traffic control duties. MVD salaries are generally lower than those paid in other agencies of the criminal justice system. Reportedly, staffers are poorly trained and equipped, and corruption is widespread.

Until 1990 Russia's regular militia was under the direct supervision of the Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Soviet Union. At that time, the Russian Republic established its own MVD, which assumed control of the republic's militia. In the late 1980s, the Gorbachev regime had attempted to improve training, tighten discipline, and decentralize the administration of the militia throughout the Soviet Union so that it might respond better to local needs and deal more effectively with drug trafficking and organized crime. Some progress was made toward these objectives despite strong opposition from conservative elements in the CPSU leadership. However, after 1990 the redirection of MVD resources to the Internal Troops and to the MVD's new local riot squads undercut militia reform. In the August 1991 coup against the Gorbachev government, most Russian police remained inactive, although some in Moscow joined the Yeltsin forces that opposed the overthrow of the government.



*Police watch demonstration in Red Square, Moscow, March 1992.  
Courtesy Mike Albin*

In early 1996, a reorganization plan was proposed for the MVD, with the aim of more effective crime prevention. The plan called for increasing the police force by as many as 90,000, but funding was not available for such expansion. Meanwhile, the MVD recruited several thousand former military personnel, whose experience reduced the need for police training. At the end of 1995, the MVD reported debts of US\$717 million, including US\$272 million in overdue wages. In February 1996, guards at a jail and a battalion of police escorts went on a hunger strike; at that point, some of the MVD's Internal Troops had not been paid for three months. Minister of Internal Affairs Kulikov described the ministry's 1996 state budget allocation of US\$5.2 billion as wholly inadequate to fulfill its missions. Participation in the Chechnya campaign added enormously to ministry expenditures.

The MVD's militia is used for ordinary policing functions such as law enforcement on the streets, crowd control, and traffic control. As part of a trend toward decentralization, some municipalities, including Moscow, have formed their own militias, which cooperate with their MVD counterpart. Although a new law on self-government supports such local law enforce-

ment agencies, the Yeltsin administration attempted to head off further moves toward independence by strictly limiting local powers. The regular militia does not carry guns or other weapons except in emergency situations, such as the parliamentary crisis of 1993, when it was called upon to fight antigovernment crowds in the streets of Moscow.

The militia is divided into local public security units and criminal police. The security units run local police stations, temporary detention centers, and the State Traffic Inspectorate. They deal with crimes outside the jurisdiction of the criminal police and are charged with routine maintenance of public order. The criminal police are divided into organizations responsible for combating particular types of crime. The Main Directorate for Organized Crime (Glavnoye upravleniye organizovannogo prestupleniya—GUOP) works with other agencies such as the MVD's specialized rapid-response detachments; in 1995 special GUOP units were established to deal with contract killings and other violent crimes against individuals. The Federal Tax Police Service deals primarily with tax evasion and similar crimes. In an attempt to improve Russia's notoriously inefficient tax collection operation, the Federal Tax Police Service received authority in 1995 to carry out preliminary criminal investigations independently. The 1996 budget authorized a staff of 38,000 for this agency.

Throughout the first half of the 1990s, Russia's militia functioned with minimal arms, equipment, and support from the national legal system. The inadequacy of the force became particularly apparent in the wave of organized crime that began sweeping over Russia after the collapse of the Soviet Union. Many highly qualified individuals have moved from the militia into better-paying jobs in the field of private security, which has expanded to meet the demand of companies needing protection from organized crime. Frequent bribe taking among the remaining members of the militia has damaged the force's public credibility. Numerous revelations of participation by militia personnel in murders, prostitution rings, information peddling, and tolerance of criminal acts have created a general public perception that all police are at least taking bribes. Bribery of police officers to avoid arrest for traffic violations and petty crimes is a routine and expected occurrence.

In a 1995 poll of the public, only 5 percent of respondents expressed confidence in the ability of the militia to deal with crime in their city. Human rights organizations have accused

the Moscow militia of racism in singling out non-Slavic individuals (especially immigrants from Russia's Caucasus republics), physical attacks, unjustified detention, and other rights violations. In 1995 Kulikov conducted a high-profile "Clean Hands Campaign" to purge the MVD police forces of corrupt elements. In its first year, this limited operation caught several highly placed MVD officials collecting bribes, indicating a high level of corruption throughout the agency. According to experts, the main causes of corruption are insufficient funding to train and equip personnel and pay them adequate wages, poor work discipline, lack of accountability, and fear of reprisals from organized criminals.

The Special Forces Police Detachment (Otryad militsii osobogo naznacheniya—OMON), commonly known as the Black Berets, is a highly trained elite branch of the public security force of the MVD militia. Established in 1987, OMON is assigned to emergency situations such as hostage crises, widespread public disturbances, and terrorist threats. In the Soviet period, OMON forces also were used to quell unrest in rebellious republics. In the 1990s, OMON units have been stationed at transportation hubs and population centers. The Moscow contingent, reportedly 2,000 strong, receives support from the mayor's office and the city's internal affairs office as well as from the MVD budget. OMON units have the best and most up-to-date weapons and combat equipment available, and they enjoy a reputation for courage and effectiveness.

The MVD's Internal Troops, estimated to number 260,000 to 280,000 in mid-1996, are better equipped and trained than the regular militia. The size of the force, which is staffed by both conscripts and volunteers, has grown steadily through the mid-1990s, although the troop commander has reported serious shortages of officers. Critics have noted that the Internal Troops have more divisions in a combat-ready state than do the regular armed forces (see Force Structure, ch. 9).

According to the Law on Internal Troops, issued in October 1992, the functions of the Internal Troops are to ensure public order; guard key state installations, including nuclear power plants; guard prisons and labor camps (a function that was to end in 1996); and contribute to the territorial defense of the nation. It was under the last mandate that Internal Troops were deployed in large numbers after the December 1994 invasion of Chechnya. In November 1995, MVD troops in Chechnya totaled about 23,500. This force included unknown propor-

tions of Internal Troops, specialized rapid-response troops, and special military detachments. Internal Troops are equipped with guns and combat equipment to deal with serious crimes, terrorism, and other extraordinary threats to public order. In 1995 the crime rate among Internal Troops personnel doubled. A contributing factor was a steep increase in desertions that coincided with service in Chechnya, where the Internal Troops were routinely used for street patrols in 1995.

### **The Procuracy**

In the Soviet criminal justice system, the Procuracy was the most powerful institution dealing with nonpolitical crimes. Since 1991 the agency has retained its dual responsibility for the administration of judicial oversight and for criminal investigations—which means, essentially, that prosecution of crimes and findings of guilt or innocence are overseen by the same office. As it was under the Soviet system, the Procuracy in the 1990s is a unified, centralized agency with branches in all sub-national jurisdictions, including cities. The chief of the agency is the procurator general, who is appointed by the president with the approval of the State Duma. (Under the Soviet system, the Supreme Soviet appointed the procurator general.)

Proposed reforms of the notoriously corrupt and inefficient Procuracy had not yet been enacted by the Russian government as of mid-1996, so the agency continued to function in much the same way as it did in the Soviet period. Experts did not believe that a new law on the Procuracy, proposed in 1995 and 1996, would establish a reliable oversight system over security-agency and regular police operations. In the meantime, procurators continued to arrest citizens without constitutionally mandated arrest warrants, and the general surveillance departments of the Procuracy continued to spy on law-abiding groups and individuals.

In 1995 about 28,000 procurators were active at some level in the Russian Federation. Appointed to five-year terms, procurators must have a postgraduate education in jurisprudence. The Procuracy employs a large number of investigators who carry out preliminary investigations in what are called specific areas of competence. Special investigators are designated for cases identified as "essentially important" by state authorities. The Procuracy also has several institutions for research and education attached to it.

## **Criminal Law Reform in the 1990s**

In the mid-1990s, several efforts were made to pass a Criminal Code of the Russian Federation to replace the inadequate and antiquated Criminal Code of the RSFSR, which was passed in the 1960s and had remained the fundamental law of the land, with numerous amendments, since that time. In December 1995, Yeltsin, heeding MVD objections to certain articles, vetoed a code that had been developed by his own State Law Directorate and passed by parliament. No amended code was expected until after the presidential election of July 1996. Meanwhile, Russia lacked laws on organized crime and corruption under which *mafia* and economic crimes could be prosecuted.

In the absence of a comprehensive overhaul of the Criminal Code, Yeltsin responded to the growing problem of crime by enacting measures that broadly expanded police powers. In June 1994, he issued a presidential decree, Urgent Measures to Implement the Program to Step Up the Fight Against Crime. The decree included major steps to increase the efficiency of the law enforcement agencies, including material incentives for the staff and better equipment and resources. The decree also called for an increase of 52,000 in the strength of the MVD Internal Troops and for greater coordination in the operations of the Federal Counterintelligence Service (FSK), the MVD, and other law enforcement bodies. Control over the issuing of entry visas and the private acquisition of photocopiers was to be tightened. The decree also mandated the preparation of laws broadening police rights to conduct searches and to carry weapons.

Yeltsin's anticrime decree had the stated purpose of preserving the security of the society and the state; however, the system of urgent measures it introduced had the effect of reducing the rights of individuals accused of committing crimes. Under the new guidelines, individuals suspected of serious offenses could be detained up to thirty days without being formally charged. During that time, suspects could be interrogated and their financial affairs examined. The secrecy regulations of banks and commercial enterprises would not protect suspects in such cases. Intelligence service representatives have the authority to enter any premises without a warrant, to examine private documents, and to search automobiles, their drivers, and their passengers. Human rights activists protested the decree as a violation of the 1993 constitution's protection of

individuals from arbitrary police power (see Civil Rights, ch. 7). Already in 1992, Yeltsin had expanded the infamous Article 70, a Soviet-era device used to silence political dissent, which criminalized any form of public demand for change in the constitutional system, as well as the formation of any assemblage calling for such measures.

Meanwhile, the Russian police immediately began acting on their broad mandate to fight crime. In the summer of 1994, the Moscow MVD carried out a citywide operation called Hurricane that employed about 20,000 crack troops and resulted in 759 arrests. A short time later, the FSK reported that its operatives had arrested members of a right-wing terrorist group, the so-called Werewolf Legion, who were planning to bomb Moscow cinemas. Although crime continued to rise after Yeltsin's decree, the rate of crime solving improved from its 1993 level of 51 percent to 65 percent in 1995, assumedly because of expanded police powers.

Although the Russian parliament opposed many of Yeltsin's policies, the majority of deputies were even more inclined than Yeltsin to expand police authority at the expense of individual rights. In July 1995, the State Duma passed the new Law on Operational-Investigative Activity, which had been introduced by the Yeltsin administration to replace Article 70. The law widened the list of agencies entitled to conduct investigations, at the same time broadening the powers of all investigatory agencies beyond those stipulated in the earlier law.

The 1995 draft Criminal Code included an article specifically prohibiting "conspiracy with the aim of seizing power and forcibly changing the constitutional form of government," an activity subject to a sentence of up to life imprisonment. The new law opened the concept of conspiracy to broad interpretation by state authorities, varying from a meeting held by the leadership of an opposition party to a simple telephone conversation between two citizens.

The draft code also broadened the law on violations of civil rights on the basis of nationality or race, which carries a maximum sentence of five years. As in the case of conspiracy and political statutes, the ambiguity of the nationality and race law opened the door for serious abuses of individual rights. Prosecutors and judges were granted wide latitude in deciding what constitute "acts directed at incitement of social, national, racial, or religious hostility or discord." Such a charge could be leveled easily in a society with a huge variety of ethnic and reli-

gious groups, particularly groups with existing claims of autonomy or traditions of hostility toward one another (see *Ethnic Composition*, ch. 4).

Many legal experts considered the new draft Criminal Code, which is a synthesis of presidential and State Duma proposals, to be a significant improvement over the old code. But, unlike Western states, Russia does not have a tradition of respect for legal rights or a well-established, balanced system of justice to interpret and administer the laws. Many of the laws adopted in the early 1990s concern crimes whose investigation is delegated to the security police, which have a history of human rights abuses and were not placed under effective oversight by the reforms of the early 1990s. Thus, in the atmosphere of relative political pluralism and freedom of expression in the first years of the Yeltsin administration, security agents still sometimes take advantage of the law to employ KGB-style tactics.

Despite a lack of sympathy for personal liberty, in the early 1990s the Yeltsin administration made some reforms in the legal system to protect the rights of the individual. In June 1992, the Code of Criminal Procedure was amended to give a detainee the right to legal counsel immediately, rather than, as in the past, only after initial questioning. A detainee's right to demand a judicial review of the legality and grounds for detention also was recognized. In practice, however, these changes often have been offset by other laws intended to protect the state at the expense of the individual. The clearest example is Yeltsin's sweeping anticrime decree of 1992, but other instances have followed. In March 1995, Yeltsin issued a decree against fascist organizations and practices, which gave the security police broad new authority to arrest and investigate suspects. Under the 1995 draft Criminal Code, a person under arrest could not appeal to the courts to protest his or her confinement, but only to the procurator. The president also could appoint a special prosecutor to bring "highly placed individuals" to justice, thus undermining the principle of independent judges. The new code also extended the maximum period of internment of suspects without formal charges from three to seven days, although the counsel for the defense could not become acquainted with the materials of the criminal case until after the preliminary investigation had been completed.

### **Secrecy Laws**

The passage of a new secrecy law in 1993 indicated that the

Yeltsin government was not prepared to abjure the protection of state secrets as a rationale for controlling the activities of Russian citizens. The secrecy law of 1993, harshly criticized by human rights activists, set forth in detail the procedure for labeling and protecting information whose dispersal would constitute a danger to the state. The concept of secrecy was given a broad interpretation. The law prescribed secret classifications for information on foreign policy, economics, national defense, intelligence, and counterintelligence. However, a more specific description of the classification process, including which specific types of information were to be classified as secret and which agencies and departments were authorized to classify information, was to be made public at a later date.

In general, the security police under Yeltsin do not use secrecy laws to prosecute individuals, but there have been exceptions. In October 1992, officers from the Ministry of Security arrested two chemical scientists, Vil' Mirzayanov and Lev Fedorov, for having written an article on current Russian chemical weapons research in a widely circulated daily newspaper. The article's revelation was embarrassing to the Yeltsin government because Russia had claimed it was no longer conducting such research. Although Mirzayanov was brought to trial in early 1994, public and international protest caused the Yeltsin government to release him two months later. In a landmark decision, the procurator's office awarded Mirzayanov about US\$15,500 in damages for having been illegally detained.

### **How the System Works**

According to Russian criminal procedure, officers of the MVD, the Federal Security Service (FSB), or the Procuracy can arrest an individual on suspicion of having committed a crime. Ordinary crimes, including murder, come under the jurisdiction of the MVD; the FSB and the Procuracy are authorized to deal with crimes such as terrorism, treason, smuggling, and large-scale economic malfeasance. The accused has the right to obtain an attorney immediately after the arrest, and, in most cases, the accused must be charged officially within seventy-two hours of the arrest. In some circumstances, the period of confinement without charge can be extended. Once the case is investigated, it is assigned to a court for trial. Trials are public, with the exception of proceedings involving government secrets.



*Sevastopol' District Court, Moscow  
Courtesy Michael E. Samojeden*

In August 1995, the State Duma passed a law giving judges and jurors protection against illegal influence on the process of trying a case. To the extent that it actually is practiced, the new law is a significant barrier to the Soviet-era practice of judges consulting with political officials before rendering verdicts. The protection of jurors became a concern in 1995 as jury trials, outlawed since 1918, returned on an experimental basis in nine subnational jurisdictions. Between January and September 1995, some 300 jury trials were held in those areas. Although another sixteen jurisdictions applied to begin holding jury trials, in mid-1996 the State Duma had not passed enabling legislation. In 1996 the court system convicted some 99.5 percent of criminal defendants, although only 80 percent were convicted in jury trials—about the same percentage as in Western courts. Expansion of the jury system faced strong opposition among Russia's police and prosecutors because the conviction rate is much lower and investigative procedures are held to much higher standards under such a system. Meanwhile, the advent of trial by jury and a nominally independent judiciary exposed a serious problem: in 1995 there were only about 20,000 private attorneys and about 28,000 public prose-

cutors in all of Russia, and most judges who had functioned under the old system had never developed genuine juridical skills. By the mid-1990s, a number of younger judges were actively promoting the jury system.

In the mid-1990s, claims of illegal detention received somewhat more recognition in the Russian legal system than they had previously. An estimated 13,000 individuals won their release by court order in 1994—about 20 percent of the total number who claimed illegal detention that year. In general, the criminal justice system is more protective of individual rights than it was in the Soviet period, although the Mirzayanov case demonstrated that substantial obstacles to Western-style jurisprudence remain in Russia's legal system.

Capital punishment is reserved for grave crimes such as murder and terrorism; it cannot be inflicted on a woman or on an individual less than eighteen years old. In 1995 four offenses—terrorist acts, terrorist acts against a representative of a foreign state, sabotage, and counterfeiting—were removed from the list of capital crimes. In March 1991, Yeltsin formed a thirteen-member Pardons Commission of volunteer advisers for the specific purpose of considering reductions of death sentences. According to one member of that commission, between 1991 and 1994 the incidence of capital punishment (inflicted in Russia by firing squad) dropped sharply; in 1994 only four executions were carried out, and 124 death sentences were commuted. In 1995, however, the political pressure generated by Russia's crime wave changed the totals to eighty-six executions and only six commutations. After Yeltsin repeatedly ignored its clemency recommendations in 1995, the Pardons Commission reportedly ceased functioning in early 1996, despite the protests of Russian and international human rights organizations. Russia's membership in the Council of Europe (see Glossary), which became official in January 1996, requires an immediate moratorium on executions, plus complete elimination of the death penalty from the Criminal Code within three years. Russia's execution rate rose in the first months of 1996 before declining sharply.

## **Prisons**

In the 1980s, the Soviet Union had few conventional prisons. About 99 percent of convicted criminals served their sentences in labor camps. These were supervised by the Main Directorate for Corrective Labor Camps (*Glavnoye upravleniye ispravi-*

tel'no-trudovyykh lagerey—Gulag), which was administered by the MVD. The camps had four regimes of ascending severity. In the strict-regime camps, inmates worked at the most difficult jobs, usually outdoors, and received meager rations. Jobs were progressively less demanding and rations better in the three classifications of camps with more clement regimes. The system of corrective labor was viewed by Soviet authorities as successful because of the low rate of recidivism. However, in the opinion of former inmates and Western observers, prisons and labor camps were notorious for their harsh conditions, arbitrary and sadistic treatment of prisoners, and flagrant abuses of human rights. In 1989 new legislation, emphasizing rehabilitation rather than punishment, was drafted to "humanize" the Gulag system. Nevertheless, few changes occurred in the conditions of most prisoners before the end of the Soviet period in 1991.

In the post-Soviet period, all prisons and labor camps except for fourteen detention prisons fell under the jurisdiction of the MVD. In the early and mid-1990s, the growth of crime led to a rapid rise in the number of prisoners. Because of overcrowding and the failure to build new prison facilities, conditions in prisons deteriorated steadily after 1991, and some incidents of Soviet-style arbitrary punishment continued to be reported. In 1994 a Moscow prison designed to hold 8,500 inmates was housing well over 17,000 shortly after its completion. Many prisons are unfit for habitation because of insufficient sanitation systems. In 1995 *Nezavisimaya gazeta* reported that the capacity of isolation wards in Moscow and St. Petersburg prisons had been exceeded by two to two-and-one-half times. Observers claimed that some prisons stopped providing food to prisoners for months at a time, relying instead on rations sent from outside. The lack of funding also led to a crisis in medical care for prisoners. In 1995 Yeltsin's Human Rights Commission condemned the prison system for continuing to allow violations of prisoners' rights. The report cited lack of expert supervision as the main reason that such practices, which often included beatings, were not reported and punished.

In 1995 conditions in the penal system had deteriorated to the point that the State Duma began calling for a transfer of prison administration from the MVD to the Ministry of Justice. According to Western experts, however, the MVD's Chief Directorate for Enforcement of Punishment has been prevented from improving the situation by funding limitations, personnel

problems, and lack of legislative support, rather than by internal shortcomings.

By the mid-1990s, Russian penal legislation resembled that enacted in Western countries, although the conditions of detention did not. Post-Soviet legislation has abolished arbitrary or inhumane practices such as bans on visitors and mail, head shaving, and physical abuse. Also, prison officials now are required to protect prisoners who have received threats, and freedom of religious practice is guaranteed. Prisoners are rewarded for good behavior by being temporarily released outside the prison; in 1993 the MVD reported a 97 percent rate of return after such releases. However, the penalty for violent escape has increased to eight additional years' detention. In 1996 the function of guarding prisons was to pass completely from the MVD to local prison administrations, and a complete restructuring was announced for that year.

Although conditions in the labor camps are harsh, those in pretrial detention centers are even worse. According to the Society for the Guardianship of Penitentiary Institutions, the government's inability to implement a functional system of release on bail meant that by the end of 1994 some 233,500 persons—more than 20 percent of the entire prison population—were incarcerated in pretrial detention centers, sometimes for a period longer than the nominal punishment for the crime of which they were accused.

In 1994 the total prison population was estimated at slightly more than 1 million people, of whom about 600,000 were held in labor camps. Of the latter number, about 21,600 were said to be women and about 19,000 to be adolescents. Among the entire prison population in 1994, about half were incarcerated for violent crimes, 60 percent were repeat offenders, and more than 15 percent were alcoholics or drug addicts.

As in the Soviet period, corrective-labor institutions have made a significant contribution to the national economy. In the early 1990s, industrial output in the camps reached an estimated US\$100 million, and forest-based camps added about US\$27 million, chiefly from the production of commercial lumber, railroad ties, and summer cabins. Because the camps supply their products to conventional state enterprises, however, they have suffered from the decline in that phase of Russia's economy; an estimated 200,000 convicts were without work in the camps in early 1994 (see *Economic Conditions in Mid-1996*, ch. 6). In 1995 the chief of the Directorate for Supervi-

sion of the Legality of Prison Punishment reported that the population of labor camps exceeded the capacity of those facilities by an average of 50 percent.

## **Outlook**

In the mid-1990s, the Russian government maintained a precarious balance between the newly discovered rights of citizens and the government's perceived need for security from domestic criticism and threats to its power. Between 1992 and 1996, the record of the Yeltsin administration was decidedly mixed. Reforms gradually appeared in prison administration, the rights of those accused of crimes, and the introduction of trial by jury, but beginning in 1993 legislation and executive decrees increasingly had the objective of strengthening the arbitrary powers of government over its citizens in the name of national security. The Procuracy maintains much of the independence it had in the Soviet period; although the role of judges and defense attorneys nominally is greater in the post-Soviet system, Russia suffers a severe shortage of individuals experienced in the workings of a Western-style legal system.

The national security establishment, generally smaller and less competent than the pervasive KGB monolith of the Soviet period, has undergone reorganization and internal power struggles in the 1990s, and in some instances it has been made the scapegoat for setbacks such as the Chechnya invasion. Agencies such as the regular militia (police) and the Federal Border Service have not been able to deal effectively with increased crime, smuggling, and illegal immigration; lack of funding is an important reason for this failure. More specialized national security agencies such as the FSB maintain special investigative prerogatives beyond the purview of normal law enforcement.

As average Russian citizens have gained marginally greater freedom from the fear of arbitrary government intrusion, they have been plagued with a crime wave whose intensity has mounted every year since 1991. All types of illegal activity—common street theft, drug-related crime, murder, white-collar financial crime, and extortion by organized criminals—have flourished. Although the government has announced studies and special programs, Russian society continues to present an inviting target to criminals in the absence of effective law enforcement and the presence of rampant corruption.

\* \* \*

The status and development of Russia's internal security agencies and crime situation are described in numerous periodical articles and a few substantive monographs. In *The KGB: Police and Politics in the Soviet Union*, Amy Knight describes the structure and influence of the KGB in its final stage before the end of the Soviet Union. The post-Soviet position of internal security agencies is described by J. Michael Waller in *Secret Empire: The KGB in Russia Today*. In *Comrade Criminal: Russia's New Mafia*, Stephen Handelman investigates Russia's organized criminal element and official corruption, against the backdrop of social conditions and government attitudes prevalent in the 1990s. The 1996 *International Narcotics Control Strategy Report* of the United States Department of State's Bureau of International Narcotics Matters provides a summary of narcotics activity and government prevention measures in Russia. Penny Morvant's article "War on Organized Crime and Corruption" describes Russia's crime wave and government attempts to combat it; two articles in the *RFE/RL Research Report*, Christopher J. Ulrich's "The Growth of Crime in Russia and the Baltic Region" and Julia Wishnevsky's "Corruption Allegations Undermine Russia's Leaders," approach the same topics from different perspectives. Numerous articles in the *Christian Science Monitor*, the Foreign Broadcast Information Service's *Daily Report: Central Eurasia*, and the Moscow daily newspapers *Nezavisimaya gazeta* and *Izvestiya* include current information on Russia's criminal justice and prison systems and on the crime problem. (For further information and complete citations, see Bibliography.)

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Table 1. Metric Conversion Coefficients and Factors

When you know	Multiply by	To find
Millimeters . . . . .	0.04	inches
Centimeters . . . . .	0.39	inches
Meters . . . . .	3.3	feet
Kilometers . . . . .	0.62	miles
Hectares (10,000 <sup>2</sup> ) . . . . .	2.47	acres
Square kilometers . . . . .	0.39	square miles
Cubic meters . . . . .	35.3	cubic feet
Liters . . . . .	0.26	gallons
Kilograms . . . . .	2.2	pounds
Metric tons . . . . .	0.98	long tons
. . . . .	1.1	short tons
. . . . .	2,204	pounds
Degrees Celsius (Centigrade) . . . . .	1.8 and add 32	degrees Fahrenheit

Table 2. Rulers of Muscovy and the Russian Empire, 1462–1917

Period	Ruler
<b>Rurik Dynasty</b>	
1462–1505	Ivan III (the Great)
1505–33	Vasiliy III
1533–84	Ivan IV (the Terrible)
1584–98	Fedor I
<b>Time of Troubles</b>	
1598–1605	Boris Godunov
1605	Fedor II
1605–06	First False Dmitriy
1606–10	Vasiliy Shuyskiy
1610–13	Second False Dmitriy
<b>Romanov Dynasty</b>	
1613–45	Mikhail Romanov
1645–76	Aleksey
1676–82	Fedor III
1682–89	Sofia (regent)
1682–96	Ivan V (co-tsar)
1682–1725	Peter I (the Great)
1725–27	Catherine I
1727–30	Peter II
1730–40	Anna
1740–41	Ivan VI
1741–62	Elizabeth
1762	Peter III
1762–96	Catherine II (the Great)
1796–1801	Paul I
1801–25	Alexander I
1825–55	Nicholas I
1855–81	Alexander II
1881–94	Alexander III
1894–1917	Nicholas II

Source: Based on information from Marc Raeff, "History of Russia/Union of Soviet Socialist Republics," *Academic American Encyclopedia*, 16, Danbury, Connecticut, 1986, 358.

Table 3. *Populated Places in European Russia Irradiated by Chernobyl' and Other Industrial Accidents*<sup>1</sup>

Jurisdiction	Populated Places by Degree of Irradiation <sup>2</sup>			Total
	0-1	1-5	5-15	
Belgorod Oblast.....	318	232	0	550
Bryansk Oblast <sup>3</sup> .....	1,183	479	264	1,926
Kaluga Oblast.....	262	281	69	612
Kursk Oblast.....	915	201	0	1,116
Leningrad Oblast.....	68	87	0	155
Lipetsk Oblast.....	123	92	0	215
Moscow Oblast.....	9	0	0	9
Nizhniy Novgorod Oblast.....	137	0	0	137
Orel Oblast.....	683	876	15	1,574
Penza Oblast.....	57	23	0	80
Republic of Bashkortostan.....	16	0	0	16
Republic of Chuvashia.....	34	0	0	34
Republic of Mari El.....	25	0	0	25
Republic of Mordovia.....	290	48	0	338
Rostov Oblast.....	2	0	0	2
Ryazan' Oblast.....	246	293	0	539
Smolensk Oblast.....	89	0	0	89
Tambov Oblast.....	116	7	0	123
Tula Oblast.....	1,072	1,150	144	2,366
Ul'yanovsk Oblast.....	101	8	0	109
Volgograd Oblast.....	2	3	0	5
Voronezh Oblast.....	758	214	0	972
TOTAL.....	6,506	3,994	492	10,992

<sup>1</sup> Includes results of 1986 accident at Chernobyl' Nuclear Power Station in Ukraine and three nuclear accidents at Mayak nuclear weapons plant in Chelyabinsk.

<sup>2</sup> In curies per square kilometer.

<sup>3</sup> Bryansk Oblast also has ninety-three populated places with more than fifteen curies per square kilometer.

Source: Based on information from Russia, Committee on Land Resources and Utilization, *Zemlya Rossii 1995: Problemy, tsifry, kommentarii*, Moscow, 1996, 35-36.

Table 4. Area, Population, and Capitals of the Soviet Republics, 1989 Census

Republic	Area of Republic <sup>1</sup> (in square kilometers)	Population of Republic <sup>1</sup>	Capital	Population of Capital <sup>2</sup>
Russia . . . . .	17,075,400	145,311,000	Moscow	8,815,000
Kazakstan . . . . .	2,717,300	16,244,000	Alma-Ata	1,108,000
Ukraine . . . . .	603,700	51,201,000	Kiev	2,544,000
Turkmenistan . . . . .	488,100	3,361,000	Ashkhabad	382,000
Uzbekistan . . . . .	447,400	19,026,000	Tashkent	2,124,000
Belorussia . . . . .	207,600	10,078,000	Minsk	1,543,000
Kyrgyzstan . . . . .	198,500	4,143,000	Frunze	632,000
Tajikistan . . . . .	143,100	4,807,000	Dushanbe	582,000
Azerbaijan . . . . .	86,600	6,811,000	Baku	1,115,000
Georgia . . . . .	69,700	5,266,000	Tbilisi	1,194,000
Lithuania . . . . .	65,200	3,641,000	Vilnius	566,000
Latvia . . . . .	64,500	2,647,000	Riga	900,000
Estonia . . . . .	45,100	1,556,000	Tallin	478,000
Moldavia . . . . .	33,700	4,185,000	Kishinev	663,000
Armenia . . . . .	29,800	3,412,000	Yerevan	1,168,000
TOTAL . . . . .	22,403,000 <sup>3</sup>	286,717,000 <sup>4</sup>		24,008,000

<sup>1</sup> Estimated.

<sup>2</sup> Estimated. Each republic's capital is also the largest city in the republic.

<sup>3</sup> Includes the area of the White Sea and the Sea of Azov.

<sup>4</sup> Soviet citizens outside the Soviet Union are included.

Source: Based on information from *Izvestiya* [Moscow], April 29, 1989, 1-2.

Table 5. Largest Nature Reserves and National Parks, 1992

Name and Location	Year Established	Area <sup>1</sup>	Number of Protected Species		
			Animals	Birds	Plants
Putoran Reserve, Krasnoyarsk Territory . . . . .	1988	1,887	38	142	650
Ust'-Lena Reserve, Republic of Sakha . . . . .	1986	1,433	32	99	523
Taymyr Reserve, Krasnoyarsk Territory . . . . .	1979	1,349	16	85	714
Tunka Park, Republic of Buryatia . . . . .	1991	1,184	47	200	100
Kronotskiy Reserve, Kamchatka Oblast . . . . .	1967	1,142	42	217	810
Central Siberian Reserve, Krasnoyarsk Territory . . . . .	1931	972	45	241	545
Magadan Reserve, Magadan Oblast . . . . .	1982	884	46	135	300
Altay Reserve, Republic of Gorno-Altay . . . . .	1932	881	67	320	1,454
Dzhugdzhur Reserve, Khabarovsk Territory . . . . .	1990	860	29	69	480
Olekminsk Reserve, Republic of Sakha . . . . .	1984	847	40	180	450
Wrangel Island Reserve, Magadan Oblast . . . . .	1976	796	15	151	438
Pechero-II'ich Reserve, Republic of Komi . . . . .	1930	722	46	215	702
Baikal-Lena Reserve, Irkutsk Oblast . . . . .	1986	660	48	171	679
Verkhnetazov Reserve, Tyumen' Oblast . . . . .	1986	631	25	55	291
Yugan Reserve, Tyumen' Oblast . . . . .	1982	623	24	180	739

<sup>1</sup> In thousands of hectares.

Source: Based on information from *Novaya Rossiya '94: Informatsionno-statisticheskii al'manakh*, Moscow, 1994, 95-96.

Table 6. *Per Capita Annual Consumption of Selected Foods, 1991-94*  
(in kilograms unless otherwise specified)

Food	1991	1992	1993	1994
Meat and meat products .....	63	55	54	53
Milk and milk products .....	347	281	294	278
Eggs (units) .....	288	263	250	234
Fish and fish products .....	16	12	12	10
Sugar and confections .....	38	30	31	31
Vegetables .....	86	77	71	65
Fruits .....	35	32	29	n.a. <sup>1</sup>
Potatoes .....	112	118	127	122

<sup>1</sup> n.a.—not available.

Source: Based on information from Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, *OECD Economic Surveys: The Russian Federation 1995*, Paris, 1995, 124.

Table 7. *Population by Age and Sex, 1992*

Age-Group	Males	Females	Total
0-1 .....	861,576	818,432	1,680,008
1-4 .....	4,351,791	4,159,567	8,511,358
5-9 .....	6,168,816	5,957,872	12,126,688
10-14 .....	5,578,416	5,418,283	10,996,699
15-19 .....	5,274,609	5,142,603	10,417,212
20-24 .....	4,960,535	4,648,853	9,609,388
25-29 .....	5,274,783	5,146,580	10,421,363
30-34 .....	6,498,819	6,414,389	12,913,208
35-39 .....	6,172,658	6,217,575	12,390,233
40-44 .....	5,403,038	5,563,779	10,966,817
45-49 .....	2,839,814	3,041,791	5,881,605
50-54 .....	4,518,016	5,270,041	9,788,057
55-59 .....	3,576,791	4,410,415	7,987,206
60-64 .....	3,580,852	4,957,475	8,538,327
65-69 .....	2,194,867	4,362,140	6,557,007
70-74 .....	966,641	2,476,577	3,443,218
75-79 .....	727,427	2,254,410	2,981,837
80-84 .....	432,457	1,602,017	2,034,474
85 and over .....	180,568	884,901	1,065,469
TOTAL .....	69,562,474	78,747,700	148,310,174

Source: Based on information from United Nations, Department for Economic and Social Information and Policy Analysis, *Demographic Yearbook, 1993*, New York, 1995, 214-15.

*Table 8. Major Ethnic Groups, Selected Years, 1959–89*  
(in thousands of people)

Ethnic Group	1959	1970	1979	1989
Russians .....	97,868	107,748	113,522	119,866
Tatars .....	4,075	4,758	5,011	5,522
Ukrainians .....	3,359	3,346	3,658	4,368
Chuvash .....	1,436	1,637	1,690	1,774
Dagestanis <sup>1</sup> .....	797	1,152	1,402	1,749
Bashkirs .....	954	1,181	1,291	1,345
Belorussians .....	844	964	1,052	1,206
Mordovians .....	1,211	1,177	1,111	1,074
Chechens .....	261	572	712	899
Germans .....	820	762	791	842
Udmurts .....	616	678	686	715
Mari .....	498	581	600	644
Kazaks .....	383	478	518	636
Jews .....	875	808	701	537
Armenians .....	256	299	365	532
Buryats .....	252	313	350	417
Ossetians .....	248	313	352	402
Kabardins .....	201	277	319	386
Yakuts .....	233	295	327	380
Komi .....	283	315	320	336
Azerbaijanis .....	71	96	152	336
Ingush .....	56	137	166	215
Tuvinians .....	100	139	165	206
Moldavians .....	62	88	102	173
Kalmyks .....	101	131	140	166
Roma .....	72	98	121	153
Karachay .....	71	107	126	150
Georgians .....	58	69	89	131
Karelians .....	164	141	133	125
Adyghs .....	79	98	107	123
Khakass .....	56	65	69	79
Balkars .....	35	53	59	69
Altays .....	45	55	59	69
Cherkess .....	29	38	45	51

<sup>1</sup> Category based on about thirty nationalities.

Source: Based on information from *Novaya Rossiya '94: Informatsionno-statisticheskii al'manakh*, Moscow, 1994, 110.

Table 9. Ethnic Composition of Autonomous Republics, 1989  
(in percentages)

Republic	Russians	Titular Nationality	Other Major Group		
Adygea .....	68	Adyghs	22	Ukrainians	3
Bashkortostan .....	39	Bashkirs	22	Tatars	28
Buryatia .....	70	Buryats	24	— <sup>1</sup>	
Chechnya and Ingushetia <sup>2</sup> .....	23	Chechens	53	—	
.....		Ingush	13	—	
Chuvashia .....	27	Chuvash	68	Tatars	3
Dagestan .....	9	Dagestanis <sup>3</sup>	80	Azerbaijanis	4
Gorno-Altay (Altay) .....	60	Altays	31	—	
Kabardino-Balkaria .....	32	Kabardins	48	—	
.....		Balkars	9	—	
Kalmykia .....	38	Kalmyks	45	Dagestanis	6
Karachayevo-Cherkessia .....	42	Karachay	31	—	
.....		Cherkess	10	—	
Karelia .....	74	Karelians	10	Belorussians	7
Khakassia .....	80	Khakass	11	—	
Komi .....	58	Komi	23	—	
Mari El .....	48	Mari	45	Tatars	6
Mordovia .....	61	Mordovians	33	Tatars	5
North Ossetia (Alania) .....	30	Ossetians	53	Ingush	5
Sakha (Yakutia) .....	50	Yakuts	33	Ukrainians	7
Tatarstan .....	43	Tatars	49	Chuvash	4
Tyva (Tuva) .....	32	Tuvinians	64	—	
Udmurtia .....	59	Udmurts	31	Tatars	7

<sup>1</sup> — indicates no other major group present.

<sup>2</sup> Republics of Chechnya and Ingushetia were united until 1992.

<sup>3</sup> Category includes about thirty nationalities.

Table 10. *Ethnically Designated Jurisdictions, 1996*

Jurisdiction	Area <sup>1</sup>	Capital	Population <sup>2</sup>
<b>Republics</b>			
Adygea . . . . .	7,600	Maykop	450,400
Bashkortostan . . . . .	143,600	Ufa	4,000,000
Buryatia . . . . .	351,300	Ulan-Ude	1,050,000
Chechnya (Chechnya-Ichkeria) . . . . .	19,300	Groznyy	n.a. <sup>3</sup>
Chuvashia . . . . .	18,000	Cheboksary	1,361,000
Dagestan . . . . .	50,300	Makhachkala	2,067,000
Gorno-Altay . . . . .	92,600	Gorno-Altaysk	200,000
Ingushetia . . . . .	19,300	Nazran	254,100
Kabardino-Balkaria . . . . .	12,500	Nalchik	800,000
Kalmykia . . . . .	75,900	Elista	350,000
Karachayevo-Cherkessia . . . . .	14,100	Cherkessk	422,000
Karelia . . . . .	172,400	Petrozavodsk	800,000
Khakassia . . . . .	61,900	Abakan	600,000
Komi . . . . .	415,900	Syktvykar	1,227,900
Mari El . . . . .	23,300	Yoshkar Ola	754,000
Mordovia . . . . .	26,200	Saransk	964,000
North Ossetia . . . . .	8,000	Vladikavkaz	660,000
Sakha . . . . .	3,100,000	Yakutsk	1,077,000
Tatarstan . . . . .	68,000	Kazan'	3,800,000
Tyva . . . . .	170,500	Kyzyl	314,000
Udmurtia . . . . .	42,100	Izhevsk	1,500,000
<b>Autonomous oblast</b>			
Birobidzhan (Yevreyskaya autonoma- naya oblast') . . . . .	36,000	Birobidzhan	218,000
<b>Autonomous regions (<i>okruga</i>)</b>			
Aga Buryat . . . . .	19,000	Aga	77,000
Chukchi . . . . .	737,700	Anadyr	156,000
Evenk . . . . .	767,600	Tura	25,000
Khanty-Mansi . . . . .	523,100	Khanty-Mansiysk	1,301,000
Koryak . . . . .	301,500	Palana	39,000
Nenets . . . . .	176,700	Naryan-Mar	55,000
Permyak . . . . .	32,900	Kudymkar	160,000
Taymyr (Dolgan-Nenets) . . . . .	862,100	Dudinka	55,000
Ust'-Orda Buryat . . . . .	22,400	Ust'-Ordynskiy	137,000
Yamalo-Nenets . . . . .	750,300	Salekhard	495,000

<sup>1</sup> In square kilometers.<sup>2</sup> 1995 estimates for all republics except Karachayevo-Cherkessia (1990) and Buryatia, Karelia, Komi, and Sakha (1994); 1990 estimates for autonomous oblast and all autonomous regions.<sup>3</sup> n.a.—not available.

Source: Based on information from *Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States 1997*, London, 1996, 666–76, 691–94.

Table 11. Indicators of Living Standards, 1991-94

Indicator	1991	1992	1993	1994
Life expectancy, males (in years) . . . . .	63.5	62.0	58.9	57.3
Life expectancy, females (in years) . . . . .	74.3	73.8	71.9	71.1
Daily caloric intake . . . . .	2,527	2,438	2,552	2,427
Percentage of consumer expenditure on food . . . . .	38.4	47.1	46.3	46.8
Automobiles per 1,000 persons . . . . .	63.5	68.5	75.7	84.4
Telephones per 1,000 persons . . . . .	164.0	167.0	172.0	176.0

Source: Based on information from Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, *OECD Economic Surveys: The Russian Federation 1995*, Paris, 1995, 123.

Table 12. Students in Primary and Secondary Schools, Selected Years, 1986-93  
(in millions of students)

	1986	1991	1992	1993
Grades 1 to 4				
Urban . . . . .	4.6	5.3	5.3	5.3
Rural . . . . .	2.0	2.3	2.4	2.5
Total grades 1 to 4 . . . . .	6.6	7.6	7.7	7.8
Grades 5 to 9				
Urban . . . . .	7.0	7.5	7.5	7.5
Rural . . . . .	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.9
Total grades 5 to 9 . . . . .	9.8	10.3	10.3	10.4
Grades 10 to 11 (or 12)				
Urban . . . . .	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.3
Rural . . . . .	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6
Total grades 10 to 11 (or 12) . . . . .	1.9	2.0	2.0	1.9
Schools for the mentally or physically handicapped. . . . .	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4
TOTAL . . . . .	18.6	20.3	20.4	20.5

Source: Based on information from *Novaya Rossiya '94: Informatsionno-statisticheskij al'manakh*, Moscow, 1994, 557.

Table 13. Education Statistics for the Autonomous Republics, 1994

Republic	Number of General Schools	Number of General School Students	Vocational Schools	Higher Schools
Adygea . . . . .	169	63,500	10	1
Bashkortostan . . . . .	3,264	606,300	157	9
Buryatia . . . . .	602	190,600	44	4
Chechnya and Ingushetia <sup>1</sup> . . . . .	554	250,700	22	3
Chuvashia . . . . .	715	210,100	35	3
Dagestan . . . . .	1,589	395,000	29	5
Gorno-Altay . . . . .	135	36,700	4	1
Kabardino-Balkaria . . . . .	249	131,300	19	3
Kalmykia . . . . .	250	56,300	12	1
Karachayevo-Cherkessia . . . . .	186	71,600	8	2
Karelia . . . . .	336	116,400	21	3
Khakassia . . . . .	281	93,900	12	1
Komi . . . . .	591	196,200	12	1
Mari El . . . . .	435	120,500	34	3
Mordovia . . . . .	823	132,800	42	2
North Ossetia . . . . .	210	105,900	17	4
Sakha . . . . .	711	197,900	33	2
Tatarstan . . . . .	2,422	525,100	118	15
Tyva . . . . .	163	61,200	11	1
Udmurtia . . . . .	882	252,700	45	5

<sup>1</sup> Combined figures for Chechnya and Ingushetia.

Source: Based on information from Russian Business Agency et al., *Russia 1994-95: Business, Social, Economic Analytic Profile*, 2 and 3, Moscow, 1994.

Table 14. Incidence of Selected Diseases, 1990–94  
(rate per 1,000 persons)

Disease	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994
Infectious diseases . . . . .	34.9	33.4	34.9	38.6	44.2
Cancer . . . . .	5.5	5.8	5.9	6.1	6.5
Endocrinological diseases . . . . .	3.6	4.0	4.2	4.5	5.2
Blood diseases . . . . .	1.3	1.6	1.9	2.2	2.4
Diseases of the nervous system . . . . .	45.8	47.6	50.6	54.3	56.5
Circulatory diseases . . . . .	11.2	11.0	11.5	11.8	12.9
Respiratory diseases . . . . .	336.2	351.9	289.7	309.2	283.2
Diseases of the digestive organs . . . . .	27.2	28.6	31.2	32.3	33.2
Diseases of the urinary tract . . . . .	19.6	20.1	22.3	24.1	26.9
Skin diseases . . . . .	35.0	35.0	35.7	39.9	45.6
Bone and muscle diseases . . . . .	24.8	25.5	25.6	25.9	26.9

Source: Based on information from Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, *OECD Economic Surveys: The Russian Federation 1995*, Paris, 1995, 129.

Table 15. Land Utilization, 1993 and 1994  
(in millions of hectares)

	1993	1994
Agricultural (enterprise and individual ownership) . . . . .	656.6	667.7
Under municipal or village jurisdiction . . . . .	38.0	38.6
Designated for industry, transportation, or other nonagricultural purpose . . . . .	17.8	17.6
Protected lands . . . . .	26.7	27.3
Owned by timber companies . . . . .	843.3	838.6
Water resources . . . . .	19.0	19.4
Lands held in reserve . . . . .	108.3	100.6
TOTAL . . . . .	1,709.7	1,709.8

Source: Based on information from Russia, Committee on Land Resources and Utilization, *Zemlya Rossii: Problemy, tsifry, komentarii, 1995*, Moscow, 1996, 5.

Table 16. Revenue Sources of Subnational Jurisdictions, 1992, 1993, and 1994  
(in millions of United States dollars)<sup>1</sup>

Source	1992	1993	1994
Transfers from national and other government levels	1,419	4,686	7,345
Percentage of total transfers	(86.0)	(99.0)	(98.0)
Profit taxes	4,150	12,110	10,560
Percentage of total profit taxes	(58.5)	(67.4)	(64.9)
Value-added taxes (VAT)	2,290	4,309	5,023
Percentage of total VAT	(24.9)	(35.7)	(35.0)
Excise taxes	500	941	990
Percentage of total excise taxes	(52.5)	(49.4)	(40.0)
Sales taxes	21	n.a. <sup>2</sup>	n.a.
Percentage of total sales taxes	(100.0)	(n.a.)	(n.a.)
Personal income taxes	1,943	4,700	5,799
Percentage of total personal income taxes	(100.0)	(100.0)	(99.3)
Property taxes	247	585	1,611
Percentage of total property taxes	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)
Foreign economic activity	36	97	58
Percentage of total foreign economic activity	(2.1)	(4.5)	(0.8)
Natural resource use payments	496	639	681
Percentage of total natural resource use payments	(100.0)	(70.6)	(84.3)
Land taxes	243	293	517
Percentage of total land taxes	(76.1)	(86.8)	(93.3)
Government duties	n.a.	109	60
Percentage of total government duties	(n.a.)	(71.5)	(61.7)
Privatization revenues	196	271	n.a.
Percentage of total privatization revenues	(69.7)	(79.2)	(84.5)
Other tax and nontax revenue	392	187	n.a.
Percentage of total other revenue	(n.a.)	(n.a.)	(n.a.)
<b>TOTAL<sup>3</sup></b>	<b>11,887</b>	<b>30,722</b>	<b>36,619</b>

<sup>1</sup> Exchange rate used in calculations: 1992, 222 rubles per US\$1; 1993, 933 rubles per US\$1; 1994, 3,000 rubles per US\$1.

<sup>2</sup> n.a.—not available.

<sup>3</sup> Figures do not add to totals because of "n.a." figures.

Source: Based on information from World Bank, *Russian Federation: Toward Medium-Term Viability*, Washington, 1996, 44.

Table 17. Labor Force Employment Indicators, 1995 and 1996  
(in percentage of workforce unless otherwise indicated)

Date	Unemployment <sup>1</sup>	Underemployment		Vacancies (in thousands)
		Short-Time	On administrative leave	
1995				
January . . . . .	7.3	2.8	1.6	311
February . . . . .	7.4	2.9	1.5	316
March . . . . .	7.5	3.1	1.7	329
April . . . . .	7.7	2.8	1.4	368
May . . . . .	7.7	2.6	1.6	405
June . . . . .	7.7	2.7	1.3	445
July . . . . .	7.8	2.5	1.3	454
August . . . . .	7.8	2.5	1.3	460
September . . . . .	7.9	2.6	1.3	446
October . . . . .	8.1	2.5	1.3	404
November . . . . .	8.1	2.7	1.1	352
December . . . . .	8.2	n.a. <sup>2</sup>	n.a.	309
1996				
January . . . . .	8.3	n.a.	n.a.	294
February . . . . .	8.4	n.a.	n.a.	287
March . . . . .	8.5	n.a.	n.a.	286

<sup>1</sup> As estimated by United Nations International Labour Organisation.

<sup>2</sup> n.a.—not available.

Source: Based on information from Economist Intelligence Unit, *Country Report: Russia, 2d Quarter 1996*, London, 1996, 27.

Table 18. *Production Trends in Selected Branches of Heavy Industry, 1992-96*  
(January 1990=100)

Date	All Industry	Ferrous Metallurgy	Chemical and Petrochemical	Machine Building and Metalworking
1992				
January .....	81	73	80	81
July.....	70	65	69	75
1993				
January .....	70	66	67	79
July.....	62	58	58	66
1994				
January .....	51	47	40	37
July.....	50	52	41	37
1995				
January .....	50	54	49	37
July.....	50	55	48	34
1996				
January .....	46	53	44	31
April.....	45	54	43	32

Source: Based on information from Foreign Broadcast Information Service, *Daily Report: Central Eurasia Economic Review*, September 3, 1996, 50.

Table 19. Modes of Public Transportation, Selected Years, 1985-92  
(in millions of passengers)

Mode	1985	1990	1991	1992
<b>International</b>				
Bus.....	0.2	0.1	0.3	1.5
Air.....	3.4	4.4	3.6	3.5
Boat.....	n.a. <sup>1</sup>	n.a.	0.1	0.2
<b>Intercity</b>				
Bus.....	702	705	790	520
Railroad.....	296	261	274	245
Air.....	69.9	86.4	82.4	59.1
Inland waterway.....	20.8	20.6	17.1	7.9
<b>Suburban</b>				
Bus.....	5,498	5,052	5,153	4,531
Railroad.....	2,799	2,882	2,421	2,127
Inland waterway.....	30.5	26.5	36.8	21.2
<b>Municipal</b>				
Bus.....	19,818	22,869	21,359	19,739
Taxi.....	680	557	526	266
Trolley.....	5,314	6,020	8,005	8,619
Tramway.....	5,997	6,000	7,619	8,071
Subway.....	3,319	3,659	3,229	3,567

<sup>1</sup> n.a.—not available.

Source: Based on information from *Novaya Rossiya '94: Informatsionno-statisticheskii al'manakh*, Moscow, 1994, 481.

Table 20. Modes of Transportation of Selected Products, Selected Years,  
1985-92  
(in millions of tons)

Product and Mode	1985	1990	1991	1992
<b>Coal</b>				
Railroad . . . . .	371.6	387.4	341.0	321.4
Inland waterway . . . . .	16.8	14.6	12.7	10.8
Truck . . . . .	22.0	23.3	n.a. <sup>1</sup>	n.a.
Sea . . . . .	9.8	16.2	11.7	10.4
<b>Coke</b>				
Railroad . . . . .	16.0	12.2	10.1	10.9
Truck . . . . .	0.1	0.1	0	0
<b>Petroleum products</b>				
Railroad . . . . .	265.9	246.7	234.9	212.0
Inland waterway . . . . .	38.8	33.0	31.0	20.5
Truck . . . . .	27.4	28.3	n.a.	n.a.
Sea . . . . .	51.3	53.4	33.9	38.3
<b>Iron and manganese ore</b>				
Railroad . . . . .	110.3	113.0	96.4	89.8
Inland waterway . . . . .	3.1	2.3	1.4	1.1
Truck . . . . .	1.4	4.5	n.a.	n.a.
Sea . . . . .	3.7	4.1	2.4	2.8
<b>Ferrous metals</b>				
Railroad . . . . .	158.0	142.1	118.6	94.5
Inland waterway . . . . .	3.4	2.5	2.5	2.1
Truck . . . . .	n.a.	30.8	n.a.	n.a.
Sea . . . . .	0	3.0	2.2	3.1
<b>Chemical and mineral fertilizers</b>				
Railroad . . . . .	79.6	76.4	69.1	51.7
Inland waterway . . . . .	4.4	5.0	4.2	3.6
Truck . . . . .	5.5	3.7	n.a.	n.a.
Sea . . . . .	4.3	2.8	1.3	1.3
<b>Timber</b>				
Railroad . . . . .	137.5	131.7	116.3	97.2
Inland waterway . . . . .	67.5	49.7	37.5	27.5
Truck . . . . .	19.7	15.0	n.a.	n.a.
Sea . . . . .	13.2	11.3	7.1	4.7
<b>Grains</b>				
Railroad . . . . .	79.3	81.5	69.9	63.2
Inland waterway . . . . .	5.6	5.9	5.3	6.3
Trucks . . . . .	59.6	60.5	n.a.	n.a.

<sup>1</sup> n.a.—not available.

Source: Based on information from *Novaya Rossiya '94: Informatsionno-statisticheskii al'manakh*, Moscow, 1994, 479.

Table 21. Major Import Partners, 1992, 1993, and 1994  
(in millions of United States dollars)

Country	1992	1993	1994
Germany . . . . .	6,725	5,142	5,597
Ukraine . . . . .	n.a. <sup>1</sup>	n.a.	4,473
Belarus . . . . .	n.a.	n.a.	2,088
United States . . . . .	2,885	2,304	2,053
Kazakstan . . . . .	n.a.	n.a.	2,016
Finland . . . . .	1,223	724	1,618
Netherlands . . . . .	368	431	1,603
Italy . . . . .	3,052	1,106	1,510
Japan . . . . .	1,680	1,367	1,004
Poland . . . . .	1,230	529	1,001

<sup>1</sup> n.a.—not available.

Source: Based on information from Economist Intelligence Unit, *Country Report: Russia, 2d Quarter 1996*, London, 1996, 35.

Table 22. Major Export Partners, 1992, 1993, and 1994  
(in millions of United States dollars)

Country	1992	1993	1994
Ukraine . . . . .	n.a. <sup>1</sup>	n.a.	6,602
Germany . . . . .	5,873	5,074	5,296
Switzerland . . . . .	865	1,726	3,748
United States . . . . .	694	1,998	3,694
Britain . . . . .	2,287	3,353	3,640
Belarus . . . . .	n.a.	n.a.	3,112
China . . . . .	2,737	3,068	2,833
Italy . . . . .	2,951	2,629	2,729
Netherlands . . . . .	2,277	979	2,389
Kazakstan . . . . .	n.a.	n.a.	2,288
Japan . . . . .	1,569	2,005	2,165
Finland . . . . .	1,564	1,364	2,028

<sup>1</sup> n.a.—not available.

Source: Based on information from Economist Intelligence Unit, *Country Report: Russia, 2d Quarter 1996*, London, 1996, 35.

*Table 23. Trade with the United States by Selected Products, 1995 and 1996*  
(in thousands of United States dollars)

Product	1995	1996
<b>Exports</b>		
Unwrought aluminum .....	782,865	588,247
Precious metals and related items .....	425,348	533,856
Milled steel products .....	462,252	461,297
Base metals and chemicals .....	411,749	397,519
Uranium and plutonium .....	277,010	228,484
Fertilizers .....	208,080	169,609
Frozen fish .....	58,869	90,755
Petroleum products .....	52,129	81,686
Crude petroleum .....	68,055	79,698
Shellfish .....	73,015	77,166
Ferrous alloys .....	132,250	74,168
Inorganic chemicals .....	70,282	62,897
Other .....	1,097,975	682,437
Total exports .....	4,019,879	3,527,819
<b>Imports</b>		
Poultry .....	606,622	912,705
Cigarettes .....	69,874	360,792
Construction and mining equipment .....	191,755	174,395
Miscellaneous animals and meats .....	103,902	140,429
Vehicles and vehicle chassis .....	88,452	95,100
Commercial and pleasure vessels .....	9,326	93,323
Automatic data processing machines .....	113,947	92,847
Medical goods .....	59,488	65,392
Telephone and telegraph equipment .....	53,538	59,044
Scientific and industrial instruments .....	37,537	50,579
Cereals .....	63,289	46,211
Edible preparations .....	33,471	44,456
Other .....	1,322,536	1,125,329
Total imports .....	2,753,737	3,260,602

Source: Based on official statistics of the United States Department of Commerce.

Table 24. Presidential Election Second-Round Results by Autonomous Republic, 1996

Republic	Boris Yeltsin	Gennadiy Zyuganov	Against Both Candidates	Absentee	Voided
Adygea . . . . .	76,146	133,665	7,575	12,595	118,457
Bashkortostan . . .	1,170,774	990,148	83,484	81,180	535,815
Buryatia . . . . .	192,933	210,791	16,036	26,454	26,448
Chechnya . . . . .	275,455	80,877	15,184	33,541	122,438
Chuvashia . . . . .	205,959	405,129	21,614	27,596	313,864
Dagestan . . . . .	471,231	401,069	7,423	26,446	249,200
Gorno-Altay . . . . .	40,026	48,057	3,527	5,805	35,166
Ingushetia . . . . .	75,768	14,738	3,136	1,973	19,681
Kabardino- Balkaria . . . . .	259,313	135,287	7,952	16,739	95,083
Kalmykia . . . . .	103,515	39,354	2,919	14,642	53,731
Karachayevo- Cherkessia . . . . .	109,747	101,379	5,286	12,510	73,749
Karelia . . . . .	251,205	100,104	25,025	17,669	96,990
Khakassia . . . . .	116,729	116,644	11,842	11,030	96,086
Komi . . . . .	308,250	134,224	31,577	15,955	301,146
Mari El . . . . .	154,301	199,872	19,628	26,479	171,064
Mordovia . . . . .	238,441	249,451	16,328	29,106	167,499
North Ossetia . . .	133,748	164,308	7,317	11,630	98,451
Sakha . . . . .	274,570	126,888	17,293	30,581	62,849
Tatarstan . . . . .	1,253,121	658,782	74,178	73,109	569,118
Tyva . . . . .	73,113	37,227	2,423	11,474	33,625
Udmurtia . . . . .	392,551	302,649	40,302	29,756	279,947
RUSSIA . . . . .	40,208,384	30,113,306	3,604,550	3,615,336	31,013,641

Source: Based on information from *Rossiyskaya gazeta* [Moscow], July 16, 1996, translated in Foreign Broadcast Information Service, *Daily Report: Central Eurasia*, July 31, 1996, 1-3.

Table 25. *Funding of Government Functions by Jurisdiction, 1994*

Function	Federal	Republic, Oblast, or Territory	Rayon
Defense . . . . .	100 percent, except military housing	— <sup>1</sup>	Military housing
Internal security . . . . .	100 percent	—	—
Foreign economic relations . . . . .	100 percent	—	—
Education . . . . .	All expenses of universities and research institutes	All technical and vocational schools	Wages and maintenance of primary and secondary schools
Health <sup>2</sup> . . . . .	Medical research institutes	Tertiary, veterans', and specialized hospitals	Secondary hospitals
Public transportation . . . . .	—	Interjurisdictional highways, air, and railroad facilities (former federal)	Some facilities such as subways
Libraries . . . . .	Special libraries such as Lenin Library	Special services	Most services
Housing . . . . .	A portion of construction	A portion of construction	A portion of construction; maintenance
Price subsidies . . . . .	A portion of food and medicine	—	Fuels, mass transportation, basic foods, and medicines
Welfare payments . . . . .	A portion	A portion	Program management
Environment . . . . .	National issues	Regional functions such as forest preservation	—

<sup>1</sup> — no jurisdictional responsibility.<sup>2</sup> Towns and villages are responsible for paramedical personnel.

Source: Based on information from World Bank, *Russian Federation: Toward Medium-Term Viability*, Washington, 1996, 40–41.

Table 26. Political Parties and Groups Receiving Highest Vote Count in State Duma Elections, 1995

Full Name of Party or Group	National Vote Count
Communist Party of the Russian Federation (KPRF) <sup>1</sup> . . . . .	15,432,963
Liberal-Democratic Party of Russia (LDPR) <sup>2</sup> . . . . .	7,737,431
Our Home Is Russia All-Russian Political Movement (NDR) <sup>3</sup> . . . . .	7,009,291
Yabloko Public Association . . . . .	4,767,384
Women of Russia Political Movement . . . . .	3,188,813
Communist Workers of Russia for the Soviet Union . . . . .	3,137,406
Congress of Russian Communities Public Political Movement (KRO) <sup>4</sup> . . . . .	2,980,137
Party of Workers' Self-Government . . . . .	2,756,954
Russia's Democratic Choice-United Democrats (DVR-OD) <sup>5</sup> . . . . .	2,674,084
Agrarian Party of Russia . . . . .	2,613,127
Derzhava (State Power) Social-Patriotic Movement . . . . .	1,781,233
Forward, Russia! Public Political Movement . . . . .	1,343,428
Power to the People!	1,112,873
Republican Party of the Russian Federation (RPRF-Pamfilova-Gurov-Vladimir Lysenko) <sup>6</sup> . . . . .	1,106,812
Trade Unions and Industrialists of Russia-Union of Labor . . . . .	1,076,072
Votes against all federal tickets . . . . .	1,918,151

<sup>1</sup> KPRF—Kommunisticheskaya partiya Rossiyskoy Federatsii.

<sup>2</sup> LDPR—Liberal'no-demokraticeskaya partiya Rossii.

<sup>3</sup> NDR—Nash dom Rossiya.

<sup>4</sup> KRO—Kongress russkikh obshchin.

<sup>5</sup> DVR-OD—Demokraticeskii vybor Rossii-Ob"yedinennoye dvizheniye.

<sup>6</sup> RPRF—Respublikanskaya partiya Rossiyskoy Federatsii.

Source: Based on information from *Rossiyskaya gazeta* [Moscow], January 24, 1996, translated in Foreign Broadcast Information Service, *Daily Report: Central Eurasia: Russia, Results of December 1995 State Duma Elections*, April 24, 1996, 20–21.

Table 27. Major Periodicals, 1995–96

Newspaper	Type	Date Established	Circulation
<i>Argumenty i fakty</i> . . . . .	Weekly, independent	1992	3,200,000
<i>Izvestiya</i> . . . . .	Daily, independent since 1991	1917	604,765
<i>Kommersant Daily</i> . . . . .	Daily, focuses on business, youth	1990	104,400
<i>Komsomol'skaya pravda</i> . .	Daily, lacks former strong ideology	1925	1,547,000
<i>Krasnaya zvezda</i> . . . . .	Daily, conservative, mainly military	1924	107,350
<i>Literaturnaya gazeta</i> . . . .	Weekly, liberal, cultural coverage	1929	280,000
<i>Megapolis ekspres</i> . . . . .	Weekly, international, neoconservative	1990	400,000
<i>Moskovskie novosti</i> . . . . .	Weekly, independent, antiestablishment	1930	167,367
<i>Moskovskaya pravda</i> . . . .	Daily	1918	377,000
<i>Nezavisimaya gazeta</i> . . . .	Daily, independent, owned by banker Boris Berezovskiy	1990	50,400
<i>Ogonek</i> . . . . .	Weekly, independent, owned by banker Boris Berezovskiy	1899	100,000
<i>Pravda</i> . . . . .	Independent, pro-communist	1912	210,000
<i>Rossiyskaya gazeta</i> . . . . .	Daily, source of official documents, very pro-government	1990	500,000
<i>Rossiyskiye vesti</i> . . . . .	Weekly, highest-quality government voice	1991	131,000
<i>Segodnya</i> . . . . .	Daily, political and business emphasis	1993	100,000
<i>Sovetskaya Rossiya</i> . . . . .	Daily, communist and nationalist views	1956	250,000
<i>Trud</i> . . . . .	Daily, trade union paper	1921	800,000

Source: Based on information from Richard F. Staar, *The New Military in Russia: Ten Myths That Shape the Image*, Annapolis, 1996, 229–32; and Foreign Broadcast Information Service, *Daily Report: Central Russia, Pre-Election Survey of Major Russian Media*, December 5, 1995, 9–19.

Table 28. Main Directorates of the Armed Forces General Staff, 1994

Directorate	Function
Armaments . . . . .	Liaison with military industrial complex
Armor . . . . .	Staff supervision of maintenance and modernization of combat vehicles
Artillery . . . . .	Staff supervision of maintenance and modernization of weapons
Billeting and Maintenance . . . . .	Maintenance and operation of military real estate
Cadres . . . . .	Management of careers of professional military officers and warrant officers
Construction . . . . .	Supervision of funding and resources for new military construction
Construction Industry of Ministry of Defense . . . . .	Supervision of classified construction projects
Education . . . . .	Education and training of cadres and specialists
Foreign Relations . . . . .	Direction of foreign assistance programs and military attachés
Intelligence . . . . .	Successor to Soviet Main Intelligence Directorate (GRU); collection of strategic, technical, and tactical information for armed forces <sup>1</sup>
Military Counterintelligence . . . . .	Oversight of military security matters
Motor Vehicles . . . . .	Supervision of maintenance and modernization of wheeled vehicles
Organization-Mobilization . . . . .	Development and dissemination of mobilization plans for national emergencies
Personnel Work . . . . .	Successor to Soviet political office, for management of enlisted personnel
Trade . . . . .	Management of foreign military sales

<sup>1</sup> GRU—Glavnoye razvedyvatel'noye upravleniye.

Source: Based on information from Joint Publications Research Service, *JPRS Report: Central Eurasia Military Affairs: Directory of Military Organizations and Personnel*, Washington, 1994, 32–53.

Table 29. Strategic Nuclear Forces, 1995

Type	Number in Inventory	Description
<b>Submarines</b>		
Typhoon .....	6	20 Sturgeon SS-N-20 missiles
Delta-IV .....	7	16 Skiff SS-N-23 missiles each
Delta-III .....	13	16 Stingray SS-N-18 missiles each
Delta-II .....	4	16 Sawfly SS-N-8 missiles each
Delta-I .....	15	12 Sawfly SS-N-8 missiles each
Total .....	45	684 missiles
<b>Intercontinental ballistic missiles</b>		
SS-17 Spanker (RS-16) .....	10	All MIRV, all in Russia <sup>1</sup>
SS-18 Satan (RS-20) .....	222	10 MIRV, 174 in Russia, remainder without warheads in Kazakhstan
SS-19 Siletto (RS-18) .....	250	6 MIRV, 160 in Russia, 90 in Ukraine
SS-24 Scalpel (RS-22) .....	92	10 MIRV, 46 in Russia, 46 in Ukraine; in Russia, 10 in silos, 36 on rails
SS-25 Sickle (RS-12M) .....	354	Mobile, single-warhead, at 10 bases; 336 in Russia, 18 in Belarus

<sup>1</sup> MIRV—multiple-warhead independently targeted reentry vehicle.

Source: Based on information from *The Military Balance, 1995-1996*, London, 1995, 113-14.



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## Chapter 4

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## Glossary

- Academy of Sciences (Akademiya nauk)**—Russia's most prestigious scholarly institute, established in 1725 by Peter the Great. The Academy of Sciences has historically carried out long-range research and developed new technology. The Academy of Sciences of the Soviet Union conducted basic research in the physical, natural, mathematical, and social sciences. In 1991 Russia established its own academy for the first time in the Soviet era.
- Anti-Ballistic Missile Treaty (ABM Treaty)**—A 1972 agreement limiting deployment of United States and Soviet anti-ballistic missile (ABM) systems. A protocol signed in 1974 limited each party to a single ABM system deployment area. In 1996 the United States and Russia negotiated to modify the terms of the treaty in order to permit testing of technology against non-intercontinental delivery systems.
- balance of payments**—A record of receipts from and payments to the rest of the world by a country's government and its residents. The balance of payments includes the international financial transactions of a country for commodities, services, capital transactions, and gold movements.
- balance of trade**—A record of a country's trade in goods with the rest of the world. The balance of trade differs from the balance of payments (*q.v.*) because the latter includes transactions for services and the former does not. When the exports of merchandise exceed imports, a country is said to have a balance of trade surplus or to have a favorable balance of trade. When the imports of merchandise exceed exports, a country is said to have a balance of trade deficit or to have an unfavorable balance of trade.
- Bank for International Standards (BIS)**—Established in 1930 to assist national central banks in managing and investing monetary reserves and to promote international cooperation among those banks.
- Bolshevik**—Originally referring to a member of the majority (*bol'shinstvo*), a name adopted by the radical members of the Russian Social Democratic Labor Party in 1903. In March 1918, the Bolsheviks formed the Russian Communist Party (Bolshevik). That Party was the precursor of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (CPSU—*q.v.*).

- boyar—Between the tenth and seventeenth centuries, a member of the upper level of the nobility and state administration in Kievan Rus' and Muscovy. Abolished as a class by Peter the Great.
- Brezhnev Doctrine—The Soviet Union's declared right to intervene in the internal affairs of another socialist state if the leading role of that state's communist party was threatened. Formulated as justification for the Soviet Union's invasion of Czechoslovakia in August 1968. Mikhail S. Gorbachev implicitly abandoned the Brezhnev Doctrine in 1989.
- chernozem—Literally, black earth. A type of rich, black soil indigenous to large parts of Ukraine and southwestern Russia.
- collective farm (*kollektivnoye khozyaystvo—kolkhoz*)—In the Soviet agricultural system, an agricultural "cooperative" where peasants, under the direction of party-approved plans and leaders, were paid wages based in part on the success of their harvest. Still in existence in the 1990s.
- Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS)—Created on December 21, 1991, when eleven heads of state signed the Alma-Ata Declaration, expanding membership of the all-Slavic CIS established at Minsk two weeks earlier by Belarus, Russia, and Ukraine. The eight other members were Armenia, Azerbaijan, Kazakstan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan. The CIS aims to coordinate intracommonwealth relations and oversee common interests of its members in economics, foreign policy, and defense matters. In October 1993, Georgia became the twelfth member of the CIS. Efforts to strengthen CIS authority and interaction generally have not been successful.
- communism/communist—A doctrine based on revolutionary Marxist socialism (*q.v.*) and Marxism-Leninism (*q.v.*). As the official ideology of the Soviet Union, it provided for a system of authoritarian government in which the CPSU (*q.v.*) alone controlled state-owned means of production. Communism nominally sought to establish a society in which the state would wither away and goods and services would be distributed equitably.
- Communist Party of the Soviet Union (CPSU)—The official name of the communist party in the Soviet Union after 1952. Originally the Bolshevik (*q.v.*) faction of the Russian

Social Democratic Labor Party, the party was named the Russian Communist Party (Bolshevik) from March 1918 to December 1925, then the All-Union Communist Party (Bolshevik) from December 1925 to October 1952. After the August 1991 Moscow coup, Russian president Boris N. Yeltsin banned the party in Russia and ordered its property turned over to the government.

Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe (CSCE)—*See* Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe.

Congress of People's Deputies—Established in 1988 by constitutional amendment, the highest organ of legislative and executive authority in the Soviet Union. As such, it elected the Supreme Soviet, the Soviet Union's standing legislative body. The Congress of People's Deputies elected in March–April 1989 consisted of 2,250 deputies. The congress ceased to exist with the demise of the Soviet Union.

Conventional Forces in Europe Treaty (CFE Treaty)—An agreement signed in November 1990 by the members of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO—*q.v.*) and the Warsaw Pact (*q.v.*) states. The CFE Treaty sets ceilings from the Atlantic to the Urals on armaments essential for conducting a surprise attack and initiating large-scale offensive operations. The treaty includes a strict system of inspection and information exchange. The CFE Treaty entered into force in November 1992.

Cossacks—Originally an amalgamation of runaway peasants, fugitive slaves, escaped convicts, and derelict soldiers, primarily Ukrainian and Russian, settling frontier areas along the Don, Dnepr, and Volga rivers. They supported themselves by brigandry, hunting, fishing, and cattle raising. Later the Cossacks organized military formations for their own defense and as mercenaries. The latter groups were renowned as horsemen and were absorbed as special units in the Russian army.

Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (Comecon; also CEMA or CMEA)—A multilateral economic alliance created in January 1949, ostensibly to promote economic development of member states and to provide a counterweight to the United States-sponsored Marshall Plan. Shortly before its demise in January 1991, organization members included Bulgaria, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, the German Democratic Republic (East Germany), Hungary, Mongolia, Poland, Romania, the Soviet Union, and

Vietnam.

**Council of Europe**—Founded in 1949, an organization overseeing intergovernmental cooperation in designated areas such as environmental planning, finance, sports, crime, migration, and legal matters. In 1995 the council had thirty-five members. Russia achieved membership in January 1996.

**Cyrillic**—An alphabet based on Greek characters that was created in the ninth century for translating Eastern Orthodox religious texts into Old Church Slavonic (*q.v.*). Named for Cyril, the leader of the first religious mission from Byzantium to the Slavic people, the alphabet is used in Russia, Belarus, Bulgaria, Ukraine, and Yugoslavia. The Central Asian republics, Moldova, and Azerbaijan used a modified Cyrillic alphabet in the Soviet period.

*demokratizatsiya* (democratization)—Campaign initiated in the late 1980s by Mikhail S. Gorbachev to expand the participation of a variety of interest groups in political processes.

*duma* (pl., *dumy*)—An advisory council to the princes of Kievan Rus' and the tsars of the Russian Empire.

**Duma** (In full, Gosudarstvennaya дума—State Assembly)—Lower chamber of the legislature of Russia, established by Nicholas II after the Revolution of 1905, and functioning until 1917. Unlike advisory bodies such as the boyar (*q.v.*) *dumy* of the Kievan Rus' period and city *dumy* of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, the Duma originally was to be a national representative body with the power to approve legislation. The first two Dumy (1905–07) were quickly dissolved because they opposed tsarist policies; the next two (1907–17) were more conservative and served full five-year terms.

**East Slavs**—A subdivision of Slavic peoples including Russians, Ukrainians, and Belarusians.

**European Union (EU)**—Successor organization to the European Community. Began official operation in November 1993 to promote the economic unification of Europe, leading to a single monetary system and closer cooperation in matters of justice and foreign and security policies. In 1995 members were Austria, Belgium, Britain, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, and Sweden.

**five-year plan**—A comprehensive plan that set the middle-

range economic goals in the Soviet Union. Once the Soviet regime stipulated plan figures, all levels of the economy, from individual enterprises to the national level, were obligated to meet those goals. Such plans were followed from 1928 until 1991.

**General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT)**—An integrated set of bilateral trade agreements among more than 100 contracting nations. Originally drawn up in 1947 to abolish quotas and reduce tariffs among members. The Soviet Union eschewed joining GATT until 1987, when it applied for membership. It achieved observer status in 1990. In January 1995, GATT became the World Trade Organization (WTO—*q.v.*).

**general secretary**—The title of the head of the Communist party Secretariat, who presided over the Politburo and was the Soviet Union's *de facto* supreme leader. From 1953 until 1966, the title was changed to first secretary.

*glasnost*—Russian term for public discussion of issues and accessibility of information to the public. Devised by Soviet leader Mikhail S. Gorbachev to provoke public discussion, challenge government and party bureaucrats, and mobilize support for his policies through the media.

**Golden Horde**—A federative Mongol state that extended from western Siberia to the Carpathian Mountains from the mid-thirteenth century to the end of the fifteenth century. Generally, it exacted tribute and controlled external relations but allowed local authorities to decide internal affairs.

**Great Terror**—A period from about 1936 to 1938 of intense repression in the Soviet Union when millions were imprisoned, deported, and executed by Stalin's secret police for spurious political or economic crimes. The Great Terror affected all of Soviet society, including the highest levels of the party, government, and military.

**gross domestic product (GDP)**—A measure of the total value of goods and services produced by the domestic economy during a given period, usually one year. Obtained by adding the value contributed by each sector of the economy in the form of profits, compensation to employees, and depreciation (consumption of capital). Only domestic production is included, not income arising from investments and possessions owned abroad.

**gross national product (GNP)**—The total market value of final

goods and services produced by an economy during a year. Obtained by adding the gross domestic product (GDP—*q.v.*) and the income received from abroad by residents and subtracting payments remitted abroad to nonresidents. Real GNP is the value of GNP when inflation has been taken into account.

Group of Seven (G-7)—Formed in September 1985 to facilitate cooperation among the seven major noncommunist economic powers: Britain, Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, and the United States. Russia took part in numerous G-7 meetings, and when Japan ended its opposition, Russia achieved full membership in the renamed G-8 in 1997.

hard currency—Currency freely convertible and traded on international currency markets.

Intermediate-Range Nuclear Force Treaty (INF Treaty)—A bilateral treaty signed in Washington in December 1987, eliminating United States and Soviet land-based missiles with ranges between 500 and 5,500 kilometers. Most of the Soviet missiles were deployed inside the Soviet Union; all of the United States missiles were in Belgium, Italy, the Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany), and Britain.

internal passport (*propiska*)—Government-issued document presented to officials on demand, identifying citizens and their authorized residence. Used in both the Russian Empire (*q.v.*) and the Soviet Union to restrict the movement of people. More limited use continued in some parts of Russia in the 1990s.

International Monetary Fund (IMF)—Established along with the World Bank (*q.v.*) in 1945, the IMF has regulatory surveillance and financial functions that apply to its more than 150 member countries. The IMF is responsible for stabilizing international exchange rates and payments. Its main function is to provide loans to its members (including industrialized and developing countries) when they experience balance of payments (*q.v.*) difficulties. These loans frequently have conditions that require substantial internal economic adjustments by the recipients, most of which are developing countries.

KGB (Komitet gosudarstvennoy bezopasnosti)—Committee for State Security. The predominant Soviet agency for espionage and internal security since 1954. After the dissolution

of the Soviet Union, Russia inherited the central agency in Moscow. Governments of other former Soviet republics took over KGB property on their territory.

*kolkhoz*—See collective farm.

*kray* (territory)—Term for six widely dispersed administrative subdivisions whose boundaries are laid out primarily for ease of administration. Two include subdivisions based on nationality groups—one autonomous oblast (*q.v.*) and two autonomous regions (*okruga—q.v.*).

*kremlin* (*krem1'*)—Central citadel in many medieval Russian towns, usually located at a strategic spot along a river. Moscow's Kremlin is the seat and symbol of the Russian government.

*Lisbon Protocol*—Agreement that implemented the first phase of the Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty (START—*q.v.*) after the collapse of the Soviet Union. The protocol is an amendment to the START agreement by which Russia, Ukraine, Belarus, and Kazakstan undertook the Soviet Union's obligations under START I.

*Marshall Plan*—A plan announced in June 1947 by United States secretary of state George Marshall for the reconstruction of Europe after World War II. The plan was extended to all European countries, but the Soviet Union refused the offer and forbade the East European countries to accept aid under the Marshall Plan. As a counterweight, the Soviet Union created the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (Comecon—*q.v.*).

*Marxism/Marxist*—The economic, political, and social theories of Karl Marx, a nineteenth-century German philosopher and socialist, especially his concept of socialism (*q.v.*).

*Marxism-Leninism/Marxist-Leninist*—The ideology of communism (*q.v.*) developed by Karl Marx and refined and adapted to social and economic conditions in Russia by Vladimir I. Lenin. Marxism-Leninism was the guiding ideology for the Soviet Union and its satellites.

*Menshevik*—A member of a wing of the Russian Social Democratic Labor Party that existed until 1917. Unlike the Bolsheviks (*q.v.*), the Mensheviks believed in the gradual achievement of socialism (*q.v.*) by parliamentary methods. The term *Menshevik* is derived from the word *men'shinstvo* (minority).

*near abroad* (*blizhneye zarubezh'ye*)—Collective Russian term for

the other fourteen newly independent states of the former Soviet Union. Frequently used in policy discussions about Russia's continued domination of certain of those states, especially in Central Asia and the Caucasus.

**New Economic Policy (Novaya ekonomicheskaya politika—NEP)**—Instituted in 1921, it let peasants sell produce on an open market and permitted private ownership of small enterprises. Cultural restrictions also were relaxed during this period. NEP declined with the introduction of collectivization and was officially ended by Joseph V. Stalin in December 1929.

**nomenklatura**—The communist party's system of appointing reliable party members to key government positions and other important organizations. Also refers to the individuals as a social group.

**North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)**—Founded in 1949, NATO served as the primary collective defense alliance in the containment of Soviet expansionism. Its military and administrative structure remain intact. The question of expanding NATO to include former Warsaw Pact (*q.v.*) members and successor states to the Soviet Union became a key issue in Russian foreign policy in the mid-1990s. In 1994 the alliance introduced a program for the former Soviet republics and the former Warsaw Pact countries called Partnership for Peace (*q.v.*).

**Nuclear Nonproliferation Treaty (NPT; full title Treaty on the Nonproliferation of Nuclear Weapons)**—Went into effect in 1970 to prevent the spread of nuclear weapons and promote the peaceful uses of nuclear energy over a period of twenty-five years. In May 1995, it was extended indefinitely. Only thirteen countries have not joined the NPT.

**oblast**—A major territorial and administrative subdivision in the newly independent states. Russia has forty-nine such divisions, which approximate provinces.

**okrug (pl., okruga)**—An autonomous territorial and administrative subdivision of a territory (*kray—q.v.*) or oblast (*q.v.*) in the Russian Federation that grants a degree of administrative autonomy to a nationality; most are in remote, sparsely populated areas. In 1997 the Russian Federation had ten such jurisdictions.

**Old Believers**—A sect of the Russian Orthodox Church that rejected the liturgical reforms made by Patriarch Nikon in the mid-seventeenth century.

- Old Church Slavonic (also known as Old Church Slavic)—The first Slavic literary language, which influenced the development of the modern Slavic languages, including literary Russian. Used in liturgies of the Slavic Orthodox churches. After the twelfth century, known as Church Slavonic.
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)—Founded by Western nations in 1961 to stimulate economic progress and world trade. It also coordinated economic aid to less developed countries. In late 1996, twenty-eight nations were members, and Russia had been invited to join at an unspecified date.
- Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE)—Established as the Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe (CSCE) in July 1972 by Canada, the United States, and all of the European states except Albania. In August 1975, these states signed the Helsinki Accords, confirming existing, post-World War II boundaries and obligating signatories to respect basic principles of human rights. Subsequently the CSCE held sessions and consultations on European security issues. The Charter of Paris (1990) established the CSCE as a permanent organization. In 1992 new CSCE roles in conflict prevention and management were defined, potentially making the CSCE the center of a Europe-based collective security system—a role advocated by Russia in the mid-1990s. The CSCE became the OSCE in January 1995. As of 1996, fifty-three nations were members.
- Partnership for Peace (PfP)—An initiative by NATO (*q.v.*) for the former Warsaw Pact (*q.v.*) member countries and the former Soviet republics, including Russia, to expand political and military cooperation and promote democratic principles in those countries. PfP aims to facilitate transparency in defense planning and budgeting, ensure democratic control of defense forces, maintain readiness to contribute to United Nations and OSCE (*q.v.*) operations, and develop cooperative military relations with NATO for peacekeeping, search-and-rescue, and humanitarian operations. All former Soviet and Warsaw Pact states were members by 1996, and many had conducted joint military exercises with NATO forces.
- patriarch—Head of an independent Orthodox Church, such as the Russian Orthodox Church or one of the Uniate (*q.v.*) churches.

*perestroika*—Literally, rebuilding. Mikhail Gorbachev's campaign to revitalize the communist party, the Soviet economy, and Soviet society by reforming economic, political, and social mechanisms.

permafrost—Permanently frozen condition of soil except for surface soils that thaw when air temperatures rise above freezing. Thawing and refreezing cause instability of the soil, which greatly complicates the construction and maintenance of roads, railroads, and buildings. Permafrost covers roughly the northern one-third of the Russian Federation.

*rayon*—A low-level territorial and administrative subdivision for rural and municipal administration. A rural *rayon* is a county-sized district in a territory (*kray—q.v.*), oblast (*q.v.*), republic (*q.v.*), region (*okrug—q.v.*), or autonomous oblast. A city *rayon* is similar to a borough in some large cities in the United States.

republic—A territorial and administrative subdivision of the Russian Federation created to grant a degree of administrative autonomy to some large minority groups. In 1996 the Russian Federation had twenty-one republics (before 1992 called autonomous republics), including the war-torn Republic of Chechnya.

ruble—The monetary unit of the Soviet Union and the Russian Federation; divided into 100 kopeks. The exchange rate as of July 1997 was 5,790 rubles per US\$1. Historically, the ruble has not been considered hard currency (*q.v.*). It became convertible on the international market in June 1996.

ruble zone—Name given the group of newly independent states that continued to use the Soviet, then Russian, ruble as the primary currency for financial transactions after the collapse of the Soviet Union. The ruble zone existed from December 1991 until July 1993, when the Russian Central Bank withdrew all ruble notes issued before January 1993.

Russian Empire—Successor state to Muscovy. Formally proclaimed by Tsar Peter the Great in 1721 and significantly expanded during the reign of Catherine II, becoming a major multinational state. The empire's political structure collapsed with the revolution of February 1917, but most of its territory was included in the Soviet Union, which was established in 1922.

Russian Soviet Federated Socialist Republic (Rossiyskaya

Sovetskaya Federativnaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika—RSFSR). Official name of the largest of the fifteen union republics of the Soviet Union. Inhabited predominantly by Russians, the RSFSR comprised approximately 75 percent of the area of the Soviet Union, about 62 percent of its population, and more than 60 percent of its economic output.

serf—Peasant legally bound to the land. Serfs were emancipated by Tsar Alexander II in 1861.

Slavophiles—Members of the Russian intelligentsia in the mid-nineteenth century who advocated the preservation of Slavic, and specifically Russian, culture rather than opening Russian society and institutions to the influences of West European culture. Philosophically opposed to Westernizers (*q.v.*).

socialism/socialist—According to Marxism-Leninism (*q.v.*), the first phase of communism (*q.v.*). A transition from capitalism in which the means of production are state owned and whose guiding principle is "from each according to his abilities, to each according to his work." Soviet socialism bore scant resemblance to the democratic socialism that some West European countries adopted in the twentieth century.

*soukhoz*—See state farm.

state farm (*sovetskoye khozyaystvo*—*soukhoz*)—A government-owned and government-managed agricultural enterprise where workers are paid salaries. Still in existence in 1997.

Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty (START)—Name of two treaties. START I, signed in July 1991 by the Soviet Union and the United States, significantly reduced limits for the two parties' intercontinental ballistic missiles (ICBMs) and their associated launchers and warheads; submarine-launched ballistic missile launchers and warheads; and heavy bombers and their armaments, including long-range nuclear air-launched cruise missiles. START II, signed in January 1993 by Russia and the United States but still unratified by Russia in mid-1997, further reduced strategic offensive arms of both sides by eliminating all ICBMs with multiple-warhead independently targeted reentry vehicles (MIRVs) and reducing the overall total of warheads for each side to between 3,000 and 3,500. In 1997 an important part of Russia's debate over future military and foreign policy.

- taiga—The extensive, sub-Arctic evergreen forest of the Soviet Union. The taiga, the largest of the five primary natural zones, lies south of the tundra (*q.v.*).
- territory—*See kray.*
- tundra—The treeless plain within the Arctic Circle that has low-growing vegetation and permanently frozen subsoil (permafrost—*q.v.*). The northernmost of the five primary natural zones of the Soviet Union.
- Uniate—A branch of the Roman Catholic Church that preserves the Eastern Rite (Orthodox) liturgy and discipline but recognizes papal authority.
- Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR)—Successor state to the Russian Empire. Officially founded by Vladimir I. Lenin, head of the Russian Communist Party (Bolshevik), in 1922. Dissolved on December 25, 1991.
- value-added tax (VAT)—A tax applied to the additional value created at a given stage of production and calculated as a percentage of the difference between the product value at that stage and the cost of all materials and services purchased or introduced as inputs.
- Warsaw Pact—Political-military alliance founded by the Soviet Union in 1955 as a counterweight to NATO (*q.v.*). Members included Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, the German Democratic Republic (East Germany), Hungary, Poland, Romania, and the Soviet Union. Served as the Soviet Union's primary mechanism for keeping political and military control over Eastern Europe. Disbanded in March 1991.
- Westernizers—Russian intellectuals in the mid-nineteenth century who emphasized Russia's cultural ties with the West as a vital element in the country's modernization and development. Opposed by the Slavophiles (*q.v.*).
- White armies—Various noncommunist military forces that attempted to overthrow the Bolshevik (*q.v.*) regime during the Civil War (1918–21). Operating with no unified command, no clear political goal, and no supplies from the Russian heartland, they were defeated piecemeal by the Red Army.
- World Bank—Name used to designate a group of four affiliated international institutions that provide advice on long-term finance and policy issues to developing countries: the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD), the International Development Association

(IDA), the International Finance Corporation (IFC), and the Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA). The IBRD, established in 1945, has the primary purpose of providing loans to developing countries for productive projects. The IDA, a legally separate loan fund administered by the staff of the IBRD, was set up in 1960 to furnish credits to the poorest developing countries on much easier terms than those of conventional IBRD loans. The IFC, founded in 1956, supplements the activities of the IBRD through loans and assistance designed specifically to encourage the growth of productive private enterprises in the less developed countries. The president and certain senior officers of the IBRD hold the same positions in the IFC. The MIGA, which began operating in June 1988, insures private foreign investment in developing countries against such noncommercial risks as expropriation, civil strife, and inconvertibility. The four institutions are owned by the governments of the countries that subscribe their capital. To participate in the World Bank group, member states must first belong to the International Monetary Fund (IMF—*q.v.*).

**World Trade Organization (WTO)**—The legal and institutional foundation of the multilateral trading system and successor to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT—*q.v.*) as of January 1, 1995. The WTO acts as a forum for multinational trade negotiations, administers dispute settlements, reviews the trade policies of member nations, and works with organizations such as the International Monetary Fund (*q.v.*) and the World Bank (*q.v.*) in developing coherent global economic policies. The WTO also covers new commercial activities beyond the jurisdiction of GATT, such as intellectual property rights, services, and investment. Russia sought membership in 1996, but it had not been accepted as of mid-1997.

**Yalta Conference**—Meeting of Joseph V. Stalin, Winston Churchill, and Franklin D. Roosevelt in February 1945 that redrew post-World War II national borders and established spheres of influence in Europe.



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